UNDER
THE RED CROSS FLAG
AT HOME AND ABROAD

BY

MABEL T. BOARDMAN

CHAIRMAN NATIONAL RELIEF BOARD, AMERICAN RED CROSS

WITH A FOREWORD BY

WOODROW WILSON, PRESIDENT

SIXTEEN ILLUSTRATIONS

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Fine money

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TO
MY FATHER AND MOTHER

a depot:

FOREWORD

To meet the duties that war or disaster impose upon the generous impulses of a nation with any degree of success and efficiency, united action is, of course, necessary under the centralized control of experienced and responsible public servants. For this reason, and also to conform to the requirements of the Convention of Geneva, the American Red Cross was created by Act of Congress. I believe that this great organization will more and more enjoy the confidence and receive the support of the people of the United States as its purposes and methods become more widely known and more thoroughly understood. It seems to me very fortunate, therefore, that a book dealing with the history and achievements of the Red Cross should have been written by one so long familiar with its work as Miss Boardman, and I commend this book to the careful perusal of all who are interested in the development of the great work the Red Cross represents.

In common with all Americans who have been observant of the American Red Cross, I am one of its sincere admirers. I admire not only the work done but the people who have done it and the way in which it has been done. I esteem it an honor to be connected with the society. I have had occasion to observe at somewhat short range its work in connection with many distressing conditions resulting both from disaster and from war. I know how admirably its officers responded to these calls, and with what a practiced hand they responded; how clearly the society understood its duties; and what excellent instrumentalities it had through which to act. I therefore feel that direct contact with the Red Cross justifies me in expressing my admiration for its past accomplishments and my hope for its continued success in the noble labors for the benefit of mankind to which it is devoted.

Woodrow Wilson

President of the American Red Cross.

PREFACE

As far as the writer knows, there does not exist in English any historical sketch of the Red Cross in general or of the American Red Cross in particular Several years ago Miss Clara Barton published a book consisting mainly of addresses and reports, which is now out of print. Though the first efforts to create a permanent society for the aid of the sick and wounded in war under the Treaty of Geneva were made by Dr. Burrows and other prominent members of the Sanitary Commission shortly after the close of the Civil War, no mention is made of this association in this early book, and it is almost impossible to gain from the compiled reports and addresses a clear comprehension of the organization, nature and duties of national associations and their international relationship.

From 1881, when a permanent society was finally created, until 1905, when it was reincorporated by Act of Congress, there was developed neither membership nor organization. Since 1905 the American Red Cross has entered into so many active fields of relief and has so greatly developed, both in organization and efficiency, that a volume devoted to the subject seems due to the people of this country, from whom it receives such liberal and generous support.

To Miss Lavinia L. Dock's interesting "History of Nursing;" to American and foreign reports, including those of the Sanitary Commission; to our Red Cross Magazine; to members of our personnel both at home and abroad; and to many others, the writer is indebted for material utilized in this present volume. Not within these leaves are registered the names and labors of the thousands who have given time and valiant service to our American organization. This it was not possible to do. Not in written records lie their deeds engraved, but in the hearts of those whose sorrows and whose sufferings they have helped to lessen by their unselfish efforts.

Whenever war or serious calamity arouses universal interest in the Red Cross, the requests for information increase a hundred fold, and at the same time the members of its staff are overwhelmed with duties that active relief measures bring upon them. Notwithstanding the fact that *"Qui s'excuse s'accuse,"* the writer believes it not unfair to say that "Under the Red Cross Flag" has been written at such a time of stress and during long drawn-out pressure of work, with many attendant problems and anxieties. No effort has been made to produce a detailed and complete history of the organization here or elsewhere. Such would require years of study and scores of volumes, for which there was neither time nor ability, and for which the general public has no desire. By this labor of love the hope has been rather to place briefly and simply before the American people something of the story of the Red Cross, its origin, development, especially in our own country, and its services for humanity.

September 15, 1915.
Washington, D. C.

MABEL T. BOARDMAN.

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CHAPTER I

WAR RELIEF IN EARLY AGES. BATTLES OF THE HEBREWS. OFFICIAL EGYPTIAN PHYSICIANS. A GREEK RELIEF EXPEDITION. ROMAN MILITARY HOSPITALS. THE KNIGHTS HOSPITALLERS OF THE CRUSADES. LATER EUROPEAN CONFLICTS. SUFFERING IN OUR REVOLUTIONARY DAYS. NAPOLEONIC WARS. NEW INFLUENCES. FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE AT SCUTARI.

MAN for centuries remained in too primitive a state to exercise much care of the wounded because of any humane purpose, and to depict the sufferings of the sick and wounded during military conflicts previous to the Crimean War would be but to repeat again and again tales of misery and horror almost beyond belief. Even under modern conditions the words of such an experienced soldier as General Sherman are not too strong to describe them—"War is hell!" It is a hell that only one who has been through the shock and brutality of battle, who has burrowed for months in the trenches with the soldiers, who has walked the interminable wards of suffering in the great military hospitals, who has seen the pitiful destruction and desolation of cities, towns, villages and countryside, and who has witnessed the wretchedness of shivering, half-starved prisoners, can comprehend.

No history, be it traditional or authentic, antedates war. There is many a war story in the Old Testament, but when the ancient Hebrew laws ordained that on the fall of a city, though the women and children became the spoils of the captors, "thou shalt smite every male thereof with the edge of thy sword," and even more drastic measures for the "cities of these people which the Lord, thy God, doth give thee for an inheritance, thou shalt save alive nothing that breatheth," the wounded held no place in its history. The lines of some old ballad, caught in a phrase of Genesis, breathe the spirit of Cain in his descendant, "Hear my voice, ye wives of Lamech, for I have slain a man to my wounding, and a young man to my hurt." Abraham armed his household and pursued after the Elamite invaders, smiting them by night as they fled to Horab, and bringing back their plunder, his brother Lot, the women and the people, but not a word of any wounded is there in this first Biblical story of battle. In those old tribal wars it was victory or death, and not a note of tenderness or mercy sounds in Deborah's exultant song. Later, as the kingdom increased in size, mighty hand-to-hand contests took place. Abijah had "an army of valiant men of war, even four hundred thousand men;" and the army of Jeroboam numbered "eight hundred thousand men, being mighty men of valor." The army of Judah prevailed against the hosts of Israel, and according to the ancient chronicler "slew them with great slaughter so that there fell down slain of Israel five hundred thousand men." The story paints the picture with numbers of Oriental magnitude.

It is so old—the dead were dead so long ago—we do not stop to question of the wounded. But compare the humanity of the battlefield of three thousand years ago with that of this mighty conflict of the twentieth century. Appalled as we may be by man's seeming retrogression, his laggard steps have yet moved onward in the march of moral evolution.

The civilization of Egypt was in certain respects more advanced than that of the Hebrews, and medicine was no mean science in the land of the Pharaohs. Physicians in the earlier history of that country were employed by the State, paid from the public treasury, and the soldier being held in high regard, received their care without charge.

There were men skilful in the art of removing arrows and of giving first aid during the Trojan War, and de Quincey says of Homer that his knowledge of wounds would have fitted him for the post of house surgeon in a modern hospital. The laws of Lycurgus ordered surgeons to the rear of the right wing during battles, showing that they held a definite position in the army at that time. Xenophon reports that Cyrus commanded his surgeons to care also for the enemy's wounded, though some modern critics are skeptical of this anticipation of the Red Cross spirit in the sixth century before Christ.

The earliest account of medicine to be found in authentic history is connected with the siege of Chyrrha, on the Gulf of Corinth, near Delhi. A pestilence broke out among the besiegers, and Nebrus, a celebrated physician, the great-great-grandfather of Hippocrates, was hastily summoned. He came, bringing with him his son Chrysus, also a famous physician, and a vessel laden with medical and other supplies provided at his own expense. By his skill and devotion the dread disease was arrested. Even Alexander the Great, who took a lively interest in his soldiers' welfare, employed physicians only for his own and his friends' benefit, leaving the common soldier to play the part of surgeon for himself, whereby he gained not a little rude skill. Before the invention of gunpowder wounds were caused by swords, spears and other sharp weapons, so that they were in the nature of cuts or bruises, and were not therefore complicated to treat.

In the days of the Roman Empire the care of the sick or wounded man depended upon his worth as a slave to his wealthy owner or his value as a gladiator to a public that delighted in barbaric sports. The life of the soldier was an asset to the State, and seriously wounded men were placed in the care of families or of women of noble rank. The Roman military doctors were in special favor with such generals as Julius Cæsar and Germanicus, while Trajan and Alexander Severus visited personally their wounded soldiers, just as to-day royalty visits the military hospitals. In fact, the military hospital itself dates from the time of the Roman Empire. One of these was built at the right of the Prætorian Gate, and on the left at a sufficient distance to prevent the sick from being disturbed by the noise, were the veterinarian hospital and the blacksmith shop. Such a military hospital was sixty feet square and contained room for 200 men. Crude as all medical knowledge then was, it commanded respect, the doctors held military rank and received double pay; men in charge of bandages and instruments were their assistants, while others occupied positions somewhat corresponding to our hospital orderlies.

With the degeneracy of Rome the army medical service also degenerated, and quacks like Indian medicine men invaded the camps. In the old-time battles no quarter was given or taken, and this, together with the fact that the life of a captive was far worse than death itself, explains results where the dead so far exceeded the wounded in number.

The consideration for the soldier was not confined to the Romans, for Tacitus gives accounts of the wives of the Germans dressing the warriors' wounds. A touch of the Red Cross spirit manifested itself after a battle a thousand years ago, when Haldora of Iceland called to the women of her household, "Let us go and dress the wounds of the warriors, be they friends or foes." In the first century of the Christian Era hostelries for pilgrims sprang up along the routes of travel. In these both poor and sick found refuge. It was not, however, until about the tenth century that hospitals for the sick became separate institutions, and even then many of them were lazarettos, or leper hospitals. It has been estimated that in the thirteenth century there were thirteen thousand lazarettos throughout Christendom, but in the fifteenth century leprosy had so greatly decreased that these were generally turned into pest-houses or regular hospitals.

It is with special interest that the Red Cross turns back the pages of history to the famous military nursing orders. They, like the Red Cross, sprang from the battlefield, for the Crusades gave them birth. At Jerusalem in the hospital of St. John, the Almoner, we find the cradle of the famous order of the Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, of Rhodes and of Malta, orders that still exist. Fortunate were the sick and wounded who in those early days fell into the hands of these good Knights. In 1187 at the siege of Acre the German soldiers made a temporary hospital of the sails of their ships in order to care for the sufferers from disease or wounds.

On the side of the Moslems, Saladin had his own medical staff, including apothecaries. With true chivalry he permitted the Knights Hospitallers to minister to their own wounded within the walls of Jerusalem without interference.

A woman's branch of the Hospitallers founded the Hospital of St. Mary Magdalene in the same city, at the head of which was Agnes, a noble Roman matron. These devoted men and women we may claim as ancestors of the Red Cross nurse. On the breasts of their armor or on the shoulder of the long mantle appeared the cross, sometimes of white, sometimes of gold, sometimes of red, sometimes of one form and sometimes of another—but always the cross. These old Knights Hospitallers, though fighting for the Holy Land, never failed to give devoted care to all the sick and wounded, whether Christians or Moslems, thereby manifesting what to-day is the pervading spirit of the Red Cross—Neutrality, Humanity. The quaint old seal of the Order shows a person stretched out on a bed with a cross at the head and foot.

Driven out of the Holy Land, Rhodes became for a time the home of the Hospitallers, who continued to be subject to the Moslem attacks. In view of the present use of dogs for the finding of the wounded, it is interesting to note that the Knights kept a fine breed of dogs in the castle to aid in the rescue of Christians and give notice of the approach of the enemy. An old picture shows the kindly Hospitallers ministering to the victims of an earthquake in 1480.

After the capture of Rhodes, the Order established itself at Malta. The account of the aid given by the Knights after a frightful earthquake in Sicily and Calabria in 1783, reads like a report of similar work to-day. The galleys were laid up for the winter when the news of the great calamity reached Malta. So intense was the desire to send immediate assistance that in a night they were made ready and gotten off, filled with a generous cargo of supplies. One-half of these were given to Reggio, but at Messina the commandant, unwilling to be obligated to the Knights, declined aid, saying that the King had provided all that was necessary. The ship, therefore, returned to Reggio, where the stores intended for Messina were landed.

The hospital of the Order at Valletta was close to the harbor so that the sick and wounded could be easily removed from the ships. The building still exists, with its great wards, 503 feet long and 30 feet high. The walls were covered with hangings and pictures, the beds were canopied, the utensils were of silver; and it is reported with some pride that a clean supply of linen was provided every fortnight. Old pictures represent the wounded Knights in large, luxurious apartments, their servants standing by the bedside. Oriental rugs lie upon the floor, and the cross of the Order is embroidered upon the bed covering. At the head of the beds are boards on which were written the doctor's orders. Special wards were devoted to incurable or repulsive diseases, and the seriously wounded were placed in upper rooms whose windows were tightly closed, as sea air was considered dangerous, producing a result that required strong perfumes to overcome some of its many evils. It has been said of these famous Knights, "Not their riches nor their power nor their military prowess have given them their distinguished place in history, but their deeds of mercy to the sick and wounded."

Save for the volunteer aid of these nursing orders, there seems to have been no attempt made to provide any nursing care in time of war. If the battlefield lay near some convent or town, the religious sisterhoods and other kindly women of the neighborhood gave what help they could to the wounded within their reach. During the Thirty Years' War and the War of the Fronde the Sisters of Charity, founded by St. Vincent de Paul, nursed the sufferers and also the victims of famine and pestilence, those two grim handmaidens of the God of War.

When the despots of Italy were mutilating their wretched captives and throwing them out in a helpless condition to the mercy of the elements, or brutally butchering men, women and children, parading through the streets asses ladened with the limbs of their victims, or torturing most horribly political prisoners, hunting them with boar hounds and watching with fiendish pleasure the dogs tear to pieces these luckless persons, consideration for the wounded must have been a virtue quite undreamed of. Nor had they to dread only the cruelty of man, for the Abbé Suger, historian of Louis the Fat, in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, records that "as many as possible of the wounded were carried off in litters, and those who could not be removed were left as a prey to the wolves."

Here and there through history are meagre stories of the work of patriotic and humane women for the sick and wounded of military conflicts. Queen Isabella of

Spain in the fifteenth century during the siege of Granada had six great tents with beds set up, and called upon surgeons and physicians to attend the sick and wounded. The soldiers of Aragon and Castile gave to the establishment—perhaps the first of the kind—the name "Queen's Hospital." When the strict Castilian courtiers questioned the propriety of her visiting the hospital in person she is said to have replied: "Let me go to them, for they have no mothers here, and it will soothe them in their pain and weakness to find that they are not uncared for."

Arras, around which lately there has been so much fighting, was the scene of Jeanne Biscot's labors for the sick and wounded in the siege of that city in 1654. She and two of her friends obtained the loan of a large building where they established a hospital and continued their services throughout an epidemic. During the siege of Quebec the Sisters nursed both the French and English. They busied themselves knitting long stockings for the bare knees of the Highlanders, which Parkman says the men accepted with gratitude, though at a loss to know whether charity or modesty prompted the act.

It is interesting to note that progress was slowly being made toward more humanitarian arrangements. In the eighteenth century we find several instances of agreements between commanding officers of the armies. The generals at the head of the French and Austrian forces accepted an arrangement suggested by Percy, the French surgeon-general, that the hospitals should be considered as sacred asylums, and that their location be plainly indicated so that the soldiers could readily recognize them. Each army was charged with the care of these hospitals, even after losing the country in which they were situated. The armies also were to favor and protect mutually the service of the hospitals in the countries that they occupied. The soldiers when recovered were to be sent back to their respective armies, with escort and safeguard.

This same Percy undertook to form a permanent relief corps in the French army. He says: "With the desires springing up continually from the disgusting assemblage of famished and vagabond nurses; disheartened by the neglect of my request; expressly grieved at seeing so great a number of soldiers die upon the fields of battle, whose lives might have been saved and whose limbs might have been preserved by the aid of some convenient and well-organized method of transportation; and seeing also that it was necessary to have, as near as possible to the lines of battle, men expressly designated for the relief of the wounded, rather than leave this care to the soldiers (who too often seized such an opportunity to desert the ranks), I took it upon me to organize a regular corps of soldier nurses to whom I gave the name of 'the corps of stretcher bearers.' I chose one hundred soldiers from among the most courageous, strongest and most skillful. I had them uniformed, and as soon as they were completely equipped I put them to work. Very soon the condition of the sick and wounded, before so neglected and abandoned, was entirely changed."

Unfortunately for the famous surgeon's humanitarian purposes the detachment which he had clothed and equipped, without any expense to the government, and sent to Paris as an example, was ordered to return to Madrid and disbanded. He was blamed instead of thanked; but it had already proved its value, and was eventually adopted in 1813.

During our own Revolutionary War our care of the sick and wounded was no more advanced than that in Europe, and in addition to this we are familiar with the fearful deprivations and sufferings undergone by our forces. Hunger and nakedness were followed by disease. The entire army during the war numbered in all on our side 231,791 men. Before the war was over many a time the men were without food to eat, their clothing hung in tatters; without shoes they made long marches, leaving on the ground the tracks of their bleeding, naked feet. The officers fared little better than the men, and there is a story of a dinner that no one was allowed to attend who confessed to the ownership of a whole pair of trousers. A condition of famine actually existed at Valley Forge, and the men were so enfeebled that it was difficult to find enough to carry on the regular camp duties. When this was the condition prevalent in the army it can be easily comprehended what little attention was paid to the sick and the wounded. It is true that this distress appealed to the women of the country then as it does at all times of war. Associations were formed for the aid of the soldiers. Great quantities of shirts were made, for which the women bought the materials that they themselves cut out and sewed. Twenty-two hundred of these the Marquis de Chastellux saw in their rooms in Philadelphia, and on each shirt was the name of the lady who made it.

Lafayette, attending a ball in Baltimore, expressed his inability to enter into the gayety of the occasion because of his consciousness of the suffering of the soldiers. Aroused by this comment of the great French general, the women of that city flew to work, and like those of Philadelphia made a large amount of clothing for the soldiers out of materials donated by the men.

The women of New York had their own association formed particularly for the purpose of knitting socks and preparing other comforts for the soldiers.

All these efforts were directed for the aid of the soldiers in general, and not in any particular way for the unfortunate sick and wounded, whose sufferings in the primitive hospitals, with inadequate supplies and attendants, were pitiful.

How little, though, could all such occasional, unsystematized effort mitigate the sufferings of the thousands and tens of thousands of the victims of war! Seventeen days after the battle of Leipzig men were found who had died not from their wounds but from exposure. It was the Napoleonic Wars, however, which first aroused the women of Germany to the realization of the need of organization for relief purposes. A number of them banded together for the care of the wounded. Napoleon himself recalled many of the sisters of St. Vincent de Paul who had fled to England during the Revolution, as he realized the value of their services to his soldiers, and decorated one of their number with the Legion of Honor.

But new and forceful factors were soon to lead to a remarkable change in conditions. These factors were the telegraph and the press. The majority of those who witnessed the horrors of the battlefield were they who had taken part in the struggle and accepted conditions as the grim and terrible fate of war. Not so, though, was it with those at home, to whom the telegraph, through the daily press, brought the story of the misery, the agony of the thousands of wounded, for they saw among the suffering men some husband, father, brother, son or other dear one of their own.

Sixty years ago the cry, coming from a war correspondent in the Crimea, rang out one morning in the *London Times,* " Are there no devoted women among us able and willing to go forth to minister to the sick and suffering soldiers of the East in the hospitals of Scutari? Are none of the daughters of England at this extreme hour of need ready for such a work of mercy?" What had happened? Great Britain and France had united in 1854 to aid Turkey against Russia. The forty years which had passed since Waterlòo had deadened the memories of the horrors of war. So proudly the English fleet with thousands of brave soldiers had set sail. The nation acclaimed with joy the victory of Alma, but upon the heels of victory came the reports of the uncared-for sick and wounded men. The whole country was aroused. Mr. Sidney Herbert, then at the head of the War Department, wrote to the one woman in England whom he believed competent to relieve the situation; and while the post was carrying his letter to her, one from her to him offering her services crossed it on the way. When this, her country's call for help, arose, Florence Nightingale responded before it was received in official form. The supreme appeal of her life came to her, and she went to the Crimea. With her went thirty-eight nurses, called by *Punch* "The Nightingales," but by Kinglake "The Angel Band." French Sisters were caring for their own soldiers, and one of these, Sister Marie Theresa, was wounded at the battle of Balaklava, later at Magenta; and again at Worth, when a grenade fell into the hospital, she, without a moment's hesitation, picked it up, carrying it a long distance, until it exploded, and injured her seriously. Three hundred of the Russian Sisters of the Exaltation of the Cross, founded by the Grand Duchess Helene Pawlowna, and other devoted women went to Sebastopol. Nor were these women of the Slavic race lacking in courage, for many of them ventured forth upon the battlefield under fire to carry in the wounded.

Such are the exigencies of war, which at the best can hardly be deemed a humane institution, that consideration for the wounded always becomes a secondary matter. Train loads of these unfortunate men are side-tracked for hours that reinforcements and ammunition may be rushed to the fighting line or long trains of the commissary department with necessary supplies are moved forward. Suddenly improvised, slow and poorly arranged hospital ships are utilized for the evacuation of the wounded at sea. At the time of the Crimean War it took generally eight days for the hospital ships to make the trip from Balaklava to Scutari, and during the first four months of the war out of every thousand that embarked seventy-four died on the voyage.

The little group of English nurses reached Scutari November 4, 1854, just before the battle of Inkerman. In the vast barrack hospital lay four miles of human misery beyond all words to describe. Into these crowded wards and amidst these appalling conditions poured the human débris from the field of Inkerman. The buildings were little better than pest-houses. Open sewers underneath breathed their poisonous odors up and through the corridors and wards. Reporting this condition, Miss Nightingale later told the Royal Commission of 1857: "It is impossible to describe the state of the atmosphere of the Barrack Hospital at night. I have been well acquainted with the dwellings of the worst parts of most of the great cities of Europe, but have never been in any atmosphere I could compare with it." Most of the usual and necessary hospital supplies were unprovided, while comforts were entirely lacking. The sheets were of coarse and heavy canvas, so that the wounded and emaciated men begged to be left in their softer blankets. Surgical instruments and medical supplies were inadequate. Under these horrible conditions it is not surprising that dysentery, cholera and typhus likewise claimed many victims. In February, 1855, so desperate was the situation that forty-five per cent. of the cases in the hospital died.

The human problems connected with the medical personnel also presented their difficulties for solution. Of the surgeons Miss Nightingale wrote to a friend, "Two of them are brutes, and four are angels, for this is a work that makes either angels or devils of men and women, too."

If among the nurses few were found belonging to the latter category, there were some whose limitations in the midst of such suffering and misery were pitiful, if occasionally amusing. Miss Nightingale quotes a speech of one of them: "I came out, Ma'am, prepared to submit to anything; to be put upon in every way, but there are some things, Ma'am, one can't submit to. There's the caps, Ma'am, that suit one face, and some that suit another; and if I'd known, Ma'am, about the caps, great as was my desire to come out and nurse at Scutari, I would not have come, Ma'am."

Nurses at that time were not only without the training now required of the regular profession, but, they had never been subject to the excellent discipline of the training school—a discipline particularly suitable to military conditions. Then, as to-day, the war office was overwhelmed with offers to go out to nurse from women influenced by sentiment and emotion but totally unfitted for the hard and serious work. A certain number of these added to Miss Nightingale's difficulties. To go out to nurse the sick and to be told that the wash-tub required her services was not conducive to increasing the enthusiasm of a would-be nurse. There were laundries, diet kitchens and storerooms to be established which were quite as important for the relief of the patients as any of the actual nursing work. In the midst of all this labor of organization, with over two thousand three hundred sick and wounded filling the hospitals, word would come to prepare for several hundred more. Mattresses would be hastily stuffed with straw and placed on the floor to receive this new contingent of exhausted and often dying men. Days of incessant activity followed: hours spent kneeling by the suffering soldiers to dress their ghastly wounds; and then in the quiet of the night would come the lonely vigil beside some dying man. Operations were sometimes performed without anæsthetics in the open wards, and until Miss Nightingale devised a screen a wounded man awaiting his turn might witness his neighbor die under the surgeon's knife. Fever, erysipelas and gangrene, especially among the Russian soldiers, added their miseries to the situation. In this terrible and chaotic crisis Florence Nightingale stands out above all others because of her powers of organization, her ability to bring order out of chaos. Her sympathetic comprehension and her tact commanded respect from officials who had seriously doubted the advisability of the presence of women in military hospitals.

All the immense labor of organization never blotted out of Miss Nightingale's nature the tender, devoted nurse. From sundown until daybreak it had been the custom to leave the wretched victims in darkness and alone. This changed with her coming, and when at night she passed through the long wards, her little lamp in her hand, to minister to the suffering men they kissed her shadow as it fell across their pillows. She had lit the light of a broader humanity. Longfellow in his poem of "St. Filomena" says of her:

On England's annals, through the long
Hereafter of her speech and song,
    That light its rays shall cast
    From portals of the past.

A Lady with a Lamp shall stand
In the great history of the land,
    A noble type of good,
    Heroic womanhood.

CHAPTER II

HENRI DUNANT. THE BATTLE OF SOLFERINO. MEASURES FOR TURNING THEORY INTO PRACTICE. THE TREATY OF GENEVA. OUR SHARE IN ITS ADOPTION.

Great as were Florence Nightingale's individual labors to alleviate suffering, they accomplished still more valuable work for humanity at large by their inspirations to others. When she was eight years old there was born at Geneva, in 1828, a boy who was destined to be the initiator of a remarkable extension of her humane efforts in the hospitals at Scutari. Henri Dunant was of French-Swiss descent. His father, Jean Jacque Dunant, of an old Geneva family, was a member of the Council of that city. The ancestors of his mother, Antoinette Coladon, were driven to Switzerland in 1560 from Bourges by the religious disturbances which brought so much strife and bloodshed to France. The boy, when still a child, interested himself in works of benevolence. As he grew to manhood the story of the Quakeress Elizabeth Fry's labors for prison reform aroused his enthusiasm. Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin" stirred his soul, and Florence Nightingale's work in the Crimea awoke within him a strong responsive chord of sympathy. He had traveled much and was always an ardent advocate of peace and universal brotherhood.

In 1859, when Dunant was thirty-one years old, the forces of Sardinia under Victor Emanuel, with the allied army of France under Napoleon III, sought to throw off of northern Italy the yoke of Austrian supremacy. The young Swiss, traveling as a tourist, but doubtless burning with zeal to aid the many suffering wounded, witnessed one of the great and terrible battles of history. Forty thousand killed and wounded was the deadly harvest of Solferino. No treaty then protected the medical service of the armies. That of the defeated Austrians retreated with their forces, while with the pursuing allies went nearly all of the French and Italian surgeons, leaving almost deserted of medical care the victims of this appalling slaughter.

Dunant, in his "Souvenir de Solferino," pictures the battle, the awful scenes of suffering and of death as only a man can do who has lived through the horrors of such an experience.

The battle of Magenta, on June 4th, opened Milan to the French army. Back the Austrians retreated, followed by the French and Sardinian armies. "The morning of June 24th dawns with the sound of battle. Three hundred thousand men are face to face. Fifteen miles long stretches the battle line. The bugle notes and the roll of the drum resound the charge. At three in the morning the allied army corps are marching on Solferino and Cavriana. By six o'clock the fire becomes more furious. In the warm June morning the Austrian troops in compact masses march along the open roads under the fluttering banners of black and red. The brilliant Italian sun glitters on the polished armor of the French dragoons and cuirassiers. In the burning midday heat still more furiously the battle rages. Column after column fling themselves one upon the other. Piled high lie the dead on hills and in ravines. Austrians and Allies trample the wounded under foot, kill each other and fall upon their bleeding comrades. Drunk or mad with blood, the butchery goes on. Over the field of slaughter dashes the wild cavalry charge, the horses' iron hoofs beating down the wretched men. Back and forth the conflict rages. Villages are taken and retaken; every house, every farm, the scene of battle and of struggle. Back of dark, threatening clouds, the sun is lost. A tempest of wind and lightning arises; icy rain sweeps across the field. As the shadows of the night begin to fall the tumult of the battle dies away. Exhausted men sink down to sleep where they stand or search for some missing comrade. The silent darkness is broken by the groans and cries for help of the wounded men."

Hastily improvised hospitals were established in nearby villages, but the greater part of the wounded were taken to Castiglione. On the rough and dusty road jolted the merciless carts with their pitiful burdens. Many died by the way, their bodies being cast out along the roadside. Into the city poured this endless procession of misery, and the whole place was soon one vast hospital. Churches, barracks, convents, and private homes were filled with the wounded; they overflowed into the open streets and lay upon the stone pavements of the piazzas, where straw had been hastily scattered. Hither and thither rushed distracted citizens, seeking doctors to minister to those within their walls. Side by side on the stone flooring of the churches lay friend and foe alike,—French, Austrians, Slavs, Italians and Arabs. Their agonizing cries, in many languages, rent the air. Their curses and their prayers mingled together. Burning with fever, with thirst unquenched, they appealed in vain for water, for the hands were too few to minister to them. There a man writhed in the agony of tetanus, and one with shattered jaw motioned dumbly with his hands for aid. On the straw-covered altar steps lay an African chasseur, leg, thigh and shoulder wounded. For three days he had had nothing to eat. He was covered with mud and clotted blood; his clothing was in rags. When Dunant bathed his wounds, gave him a little bouillon, and wrapped a cover about him he lifted his benefactor's hand to his lips with an indescribable expression of gratitude. At the church door was a Hungarian, whose piercing cries for a doctor were incessant. His back and his shoulders torn by shrapnel, were masses of red and quivering flesh. His body was swollen, green and black—horrible. He could rest in no position. Dunant dipped lint in fresh water and tried to make him comfortable, but gangrene had set in and death soon ended his suffering. Not far away lay a dyinge Zouave, weeping bitterly, needing to be consoled like a little child. On the other side of the church were wounded Austrian prisoners, defiant of aid. Some tore off their bandages that their wounds might bleed afresh, but others received with gratitude the help that was given them.

Dunant gathered a number of the good women of the city into a volunteer corps, whose tireless, if unskilled, services brought some relief. Noticing that he made no distinction of nationality, they followed his work, giving the same kind care to all, and went from one to another repeating with compassion, "tutti fratelli" (all are brothers).

Visiting Brestia, where many other thousands of wounded had taken refuge, he describes still further the suffering he witnessed there—operations performed without anæsthetics, by surgeons with untrained assistants. The poor young soldier, weak from suffering and quivering with fear and anguish, is carried to an operating table, his heart-rending shrieks, and then the silence—as if Nature herself could bear no more and had brought merciful unconsciousness to the wretched man.

Read scene after scene from Dunant's "Souvenir de Solferino," and wonder if nations must continue to settle their differences or protect their so-called honor at such a price.

Dunant asks, "Why have we thought well to recall these scenes of grief and desolation, to recount such lamentable and gruesome details, and to draw such vivid pictures of despair?"

He answers this question by another: "Would it not be possible to found and organize in all civilized countries permanent societies of volunteers which in time of war would render succor to the wounded *without distinction of nationality?*"

Here had the Treaty of Geneva its first inception, and the spirit of the Red Cross began to quicken into life.

A month after the Battle of Solferino, full of the misery he had witnessed and anxious to do something toward mitigating such sufferings in the future, Henri Dunant first enunciated in the salons of the Countess Verri Vorromeo at Milan the idea of a committee of succor everywhere being made permanent and also of the internationalization of the charity, with the adoption of a special sign recognized by all. Greatly to his regret, the Milan society organized for the relief work was dissolved at the end of the war.

On his return to Geneva he wrote his famous account already referred to, a brief pamphlet, but one that has had a remarkable result. It was widely distributed throughout Europe and made a profound impression. Victor Hugo wrote to the author, "You armed humanity and served liberty." The commander-in-chief of the Swiss army in a letter said, "It is necessary that it should be seen from such vivid examples as you have recorded what the glory of the battlefields costs in torture and in tears. The world is prone to see only the brilliant side of war and to shut its eyes to all of the terrible consequences."

Dunant followed up the success of his pamphlet by visiting many European countries and interesting many persons in his plans. The Grand Master of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, Frederick Charles of Prussia, promised the support of this famous order. The King of Saxony gave his endorsement, adding, "Any nation that does not join in this work of humanity deserves to be banned by public opinion in Europe." Napoleon III was an enthusiastic sympathizer.

The proposal to adopt a common and uniform flag to mark hospital formations was most welcome, for at this time each country had a different flag for its medical service. In Austria it was white, in France red, in Spain yellow, and in other countries black or green. The soldiers knew only the hospital flag of their own country, and were ignorant of the others.

For many years there had existed in Geneva a Society of Public Utility, whose efforts were devoted to the furtherance of philanthropic and humane work. This Society, of which Monsieur Gustav Moynier was president, appointed a special committee, which sent out a general invitation for a conference to be held at Geneva in October, 1863, to consider the question of volunteer aid for the medical service of armies in time of war and also the neutralization of its personnel. Occasionally special temporary agreements had been arranged between nations at war whereby hospital formations and their personnel were neutralized and protected, but there was no international agreement to this effect.

In the letter of invitation for the conference sent to a large number of public-spirited men the Committee for the Relief of Wounded Soldiers said:

"The Geneva Society of Public Utility, complying with the desire expressed by Mr. Henri Dunant in a book entitled 'A Souvenir of Solferino,' organized among its members a committee charged with working towards its realization.

"This committee in turn thought that the best course to pursue in order to carry the ideas of Mr. Dunant from the domain of theory to that of practice, would be to bring about a meeting of those persons who in the various countries have at heart the philanthropic work in question, in order to examine within what limits his suggestion is practicable, and to devise measures for carrying it out if possible."

With this letter was sent a draft of a proposed agreement for discussion. The somewhat lengthy name suggested for the conference was, "An International Conference for Investigating the Means to Supplement the Inadequacy of Medical Services of Armies in Campaigns."

At this first conference, at which fourteen European countries were represented, we learn from Mr. Moynier's address that an objection sometimes still made to Red Cross work had already been raised: "It has been stated that instead of seeking expedients to render war less murderous, we should do better to attack the evil at its root and to work toward universal and perpetual pacification of the world. To hear our critics it would really seem that we are attempting to do nothing less than take part in legitimate warfare by regarding it as a necessary evil.

"Is this criticism serious? I cannot believe so. We certainly desire as much as, and more than, anyone that men shall cease to butcher one another and that they shall repudiate this remnant of barbarism which they have inherited from their forefathers. With the aid of Christianity, they will succeed in doing this sooner or later, and we applaud the efforts of those who work to bring about better relations. However, we are convinced that it will be necessary for a long time yet to reckon with human passions and endure their baleful consequences. Why, then, if we cannot absolutely and immediately do away with them, should we not seek to lessen them? Charity commends this course, and it is because we have listened to the voice of charity that we are here. I cannot understand wherein our attempts would seem to be calculated to retard the dawn of the era of peace, of which we see a glimpse. Moreover, I am convinced that in organizing assistance for the wounded, in addressing earnest appeals to the inhabitants in behalf of their misery, and in describing, for the needs of our cause, the lamentable spectacle of a battlefield, unveiling the terrible realities of war and proclaiming them in the name of charity, a thing which it is too often the interest of politics to keep hidden, we shall do more for the disarmament of peoples than those who resort to the economy arguments or declarations of sterile sentimentality.

"An attempt has also been made to dissuade us from our project by telling us that we are pursuing a chimera, that we are swimming in Utopia itself, and that after wasting our time on dissertations regarding the necessity of remedying the present state of affairs, we would encounter insurmountable obstacles.

"Gentlemen, the committee which has called you together has never failed to realize the difficulties of execution which awaited it; but it has been sufficient for it that its design should not be a dream in its own eyes, in order not to abandon its plan without subjecting it to a decisive test. The organization of volunteer hospital attendants, as sketched in 'A Souvenir of Solferino,' aroused much criticism, but this book contains a noble idea which deserves close examination. It was after maturely and deliberately reflecting thereon at the invitation of the Geneva Society of Public Utility that we formulated in a draft agreement the propositions which we have invited you to come and discuss with us."

Mr. Twining, an eminent English philanthropist, though not present at this meeting, sent a letter containing a number of suggestions, one of which was startling in its nature, providing that a fatally wounded man on the field of battle might have his agony put an end to in some merciful way. This recalls a story told by Ambroise Paré in his account of the Campaign in Turin in 1537; "Being come into the city I entered into a stable thinking to lodge my own and my man's horse and found four dead soldiers and three propped against the wall, their features all changed and they neither saw, heard nor spake, and their clothes were still smouldering where the gunpowder had burnt them. As I was looking at them with pity there came an old soldier who asked me if there were any way to cure them. I said 'No.' And then he went up to them and cut their throats very gently and without ill will toward them. Seeing this great cruelty, I told him he was a villain; he answered that he prayed God when he should be in such a plight he might find someone to do the same for him that he should not linger in misery.''

Mr. Twining's other proposals were that there should be a Sunday truce like the ''Truce of God'' of the Middle Ages; truces for the burial of the dead and the removal of the wounded; regulations as to conduct toward wounded and prisoners; reprisals; the fate of places taken by assault; the rigors to be permitted toward hostile populations, according to their more or less hostile attitude. Certain of these suggestions were later adopted by the Treaty of Geneva and others by that of The Hague.

Prince Demidoff, of Russia, called attention to the attitude toward prisoners of war. He said:

''There is no doubt but wounded persons deserve the most energetic demonstration of interest and the promptest assistance. But after them there is another class of unfortunates, who, being more or less ill treated by marches and combats, suffer a moral agony, although their life is saved, which it is the duty of a Christian spirit to console. I speak of prisoners of war. These latter are dragged off into exile, far from their country, into regions where everything is unknown to them—habits, customs and language. Without doubt the humaneness of all governments has done much in recent times to relieve the condition of prisoners. The aid which is afforded them in order to insure their material existence is generally humane and adequate; moreover, the hospitable spirit of all nations receives with respect and pities those who have been betrayed by the fate of armies. However, these exiles, like all other people on this earth, do not live on bread alone. Pictures of their country and of their families follow them on to soil where everything is mute to them. They therefore feel intensely the need of a sign or souvenir which will recall to them the things which they miss.

"During the great wars which preceded 1815 a prisoner of war was practically a forgotten man. The difficulty of communications across regions which were disorganized by war caused it to be considered as a rare fortune to receive a letter, though often delayed several months; but nowadays there are no longer any countries which are inaccessible. Now the mail is a prisoner's consolation. It gives him courage and resignation, it is a thing which reconciles him with exile and makes him judge without hostile prejudice the country where fate has thrown him. With the assistance of means which were less perfect than to-day this work of enabling the prisoners of war of belligerent nations to correspond with their country was undertaken by me during the war of 1854. Being established at Vienna, at the Imperial Russian Legation, of which I formed a part, I had had from the beginning of hostilities a quite natural thought of affording fraternal and anonymous protection to those of my compatriots taken prisoners who were interned in France and England. With the help of a devoted agent residing in Paris, and who was continually visiting all of the depots, with the pious assistance of the two heads of the Orthodox Greek Church at Paris and London, who gave the prisoners the encouragement of their words and charity, the assistance given to these expatriated was as complete as possible. Letters, news from their families, remittances of money, useful information and material relief sent from afar by sympathetic patriotism—all of this contributed toward relieving their situation under the benevolent authorization of the respective governments. As soon as this work in behalf of my compatriots had attained success, I hastened to extend it to the prisoners of nations hostile to Russia and scattered throughout the various parts of the Empire. The most generous facilities were afforded to me. A general centre of correspondence was established at Constantinople, and until the war ended and the prisoners were sent home the latter were enabled to profit by the benefit of a simple and practical idea, which, to sum up, had imposed upon me only very slight sacrifices.

"This is what I take the liberty of commending to your consideration, when the noble thought which you have expressed comes up for discussion in centres where Christian philosophy and universal philanthropy prevail."

This suggestion of Prince Demidoff was not taken up at the Geneva Convention, but later by the Treaty of The Hague, which recommends the formation of bureaus of prisoners of war, Red Cross Societies agreed to make this aid part of their official duties. At present there are doubtless nearly a million prisoners of war, and the importance of aid being given them must be realized. If consideration for the wounded, even in humane countries, is secondary in war, the prisoner is very apt to receive slight consideration.

The deliberations of this conference at Geneva were expressed in resolutions to the following effect:

That in each country adhering to the proposed agreement a committee should be formed to co-operate in time of war with the military medical service, each committee being organized as its members deemed expedient; in time of peace a trained personnel should be organized and supplies collected; the aid of the societies of neutral nations might be invited; the volunteer societies irrespective of the country to which they belong should wear a distinctive badge—a red cross on a white ground.

The conference also recommended the neutralization of hospital formations and their personnel.

Because of the success of this conference, the Swiss Government in 1864 addressed an invitation to twenty-five sovereign States to send representatives to a diplomatic convention to be held that year in August at Geneva. At this convention the United States was represented informally by our Minister to Switzerland, Mr. George C. Fogg, and associated with him was Mr. Charles S. P. Bowles, European agent of the Sanitary Commission.

In the letter authorizing Mr. Fogg to attend the convention, the Secretary of State said:

"The object of the proposed congress is certainly laudable and important, and the Department sees no objection to your being present on the occasion. You are, therefore, authorized to attend the meeting in an informal manner, for the purpose of giving or receiving such suggestions as you may think likely to promote the humane ends which have prompted it. It is hardly necessary to add that your presence at the congress would be improper if any of the insurgent emissaries of the United States in Europe should be permitted to take part in its proceedings."

Many of the military representatives at this convention were incredulous as to the possibility of securing the adoption of a treaty based on the recommendations of the conference of the year before. Fortunate it was for this great project that a representative of the Sanitary Commission was present.

Mr. Bowles in his report, says:

"But I was able to prove that this same 'mythical' institution—the United States Sanitary Commission—had long since met with and overcome the difficulties which some delegates were now predicting and recoiling before; had long since solved, and practically, too, the very problems which they were now delving over. Moreover, I had just arrived from the scene of these labors in the United States, and with the battlefield, hospital and burying ground freshly pictured in my mind, could speak to them but too earnestly of war, the disease of all nations, and its known or proposed remedies. I had brought with me from the United States the latest reports and most valuable publications of the Commission, and a number of photographs from life of the field relief corps with its men, wagons, horses, tents, and their arrangements and action. These life pictures, books and practical proofs, produced an effect as great as it was valuable. To many of them, earnest men seeking for light, with their whole hearts in the interest of a long suffering humanity, it was like the sight of the promised land They had been working in the dark, and this was the opening of a window, letting in a flood of light and putting an end to all darkness and doubt."

A remarkable spirit of harmony characterized the convention, for, although discussions were often intense and opinions differed widely, one of the delegates reports: "Yet the charm was never broken by an unkind word or feeling between any two of its members." The treaty which was eventually adopted is generally called the Geneva Treaty, but sometimes the Red Cross Treaty. It provides for protection for hospital formations and their personnel in time of war. Out of compliment to Switzerland the Swiss flag with its colors reversed—a red cross on a white ground—was adopted as the world-wide insignia of humanity and neutrality. This treaty, revised at a convention held at Geneva in 1906, includes under its protection the Red Cross or volunteer aid societies which have received official sanction from their respective governments. The Treaty of The Hague extends to naval warfare the provisions of the Treaty of Geneva.

At a banquet given for the delegates to the original convention of 1864 there was in the centre of the table a large piece of confection, representing a fortress with its garrison and sanitary workers, distinguished by the Red Cross brassard, pursuing their functions. The tower was surmounted by small silk flags of the Swiss Republic and Canton of Geneva, around the central flag, a red cross on a white field, the emblem of neutrality, just adopted by Congress. "After the first toast, this flag was taken from its place by the President, who, turning to me as the representative of the United States Sanitary Commission, presented it as a token of appreciation of the Commission's labors for the good of all humanity. To this kind and unexpected compliment to our Commission and to the accompanying speech of the President, I replied as well as I could; but the act, the sentiment, the acclamations of surrounding friends, and, withal, the proud consciousness of a deserving cause, almost overwhelmed me. The full outburst of a chorus from 'William Tell,' given by the Geneva Musical Society in the hall outside, though it covered my retreat, did not add to my equanimity; for from the windows of the dining hall we could almost see the spot on which the Republic's hero shot Gessler. These associations and the music by Rossini sung by Swiss compatriots upon the historic ground made an inexpressibly powerful impression upon me. Those of us who amid darkness, doubt and the exultant sneers and insults of aristocratic despotism had been forced to watch from abroad the second great struggle for the maintenance of our country's liberties will best understand the force of pent-up feeling which events like these at Geneva could not have failed to let loose."

As the noble work of Florence Nightingale had been the inspiration for Henri Dunant's and his collaborators' splendid achievement, so had the practical labors of our own great Sanitary Commission helped to lay the foundations for the Treaty of Geneva.

CHAPTER III

A PRECURSOR OF THE RED CROSS. ORIGIN OF THE SANITARY COMMISSION. PREVENTIVE MEASURES. OFFICIAL OBSTACLES. INQUIRY AND ADVICE. REMARKABLE DEFEAT INVESTIGATION. HOSPITAL INSPECTION. LEAFLETS BY SPECIALISTS. EVACUATION BY BOAT AND TRAIN. SOLDIERS' AID SOCIETIES. LACK OF FUNDS. CALIFORNIA SAVES THE DAY. SANITARY FAIRS. DISTRIBUTION OF SUPPLIES. TRANSPORTATION PROBLEMS. FIRST USE OF TREATY INSIGNIA. RELIEF CORPS DUTIES. HOSPITAL DIRECTORY. UNITED STATES CHRISTIAN COMMISSION. CONCLUSIONS.

PREVIOUS to our own Civil War organized and systematic relief for the sick and wounded soldiers had never been undertaken on any large scale. Because we had to create an army out of undisciplined civilian soldiers in charge of untrained and inexperienced officers, it became at the very first evident to thoughtful men that if the health and morale of our forces were to be maintained the medical department of the army must be organized and supplemented by volunteer aid. If by experience alone the lessons of war were to be learned, the price would be appalling. The public itself had no understanding of the needs of preventive measures. State by State the regiments were being formed and gathered into local camps. In most cases little or no attention was paid to the selection of the camp and its sanitation, while clothing and quarters were matters of small importance. There was a blind optimism prevalent Discipline was unnecessary, not to be borne by volunteers, and courage could take the place of training.

With a vivid recollection of the fearful mortality due to such ignorance and neglect during the Crimean

War, an earnest group of our American men studied the situation existing here. They knew that had not the matter been taken in hand by the British War Department after it had already paid a heavy and unnecessary toll of human life, in ten months' time the entire British army would have been destroyed. There was need with us of immediate attention to preventive measures, and not investigation after the war was over.

The medical service of our own army was out of date; and even with the desire to do more effective work it was without power to carry out any vital reforms. It was also jealous of outside interference, yet nothing could be accomplished without co-operation upon the part of the medical department on the one hand and intelligent volunteer assistance on the other to educate public opinion, force government action and likewise supplement the actual labors of the official organization.

Many of the first regiments that reached Washington were unfit for military service. They arrived after long, slow journeys in crowded cattle cars, where no provision had been made for their care and comfort. The officers, new to their duties, had made no preparation for their reception at the Capital, and hours of weary waiting followed the exhausting journey. When at last a hastily prepared camp was reached, the men, utterly tired out, found scanty straw for their beds and shoddy blankets for their covering. The careful students of this situation became convinced of the necessity of arousing the Government to the importance of promptly taking in hand active measures to change such conditions. The necessity also of controlling and putting to practical use the excited generosity of the public impressed itself upon them.

On April 15, 1861, the day that President Lincoln called for volunteers, the women of Bridgeport, Connecticutt, and those of Charleston, West Virginia, started organizations for soldiers' relief. Soon other cities followed their example. Inspired with a patriotic desire, plans were hastily made to supply nurses, bring home sick and wounded soldiers, and to forward comforts, provisions, books and papers to the men at the front. The latter part of April there was held at Cooper's Institute, on the invitation of ninety-two of the most prominent women of New York city, a large and enthusiastic meeting, which was attended by Dr. Bellows and Dr. Elisha Harris, later two of the most active members of the Sanitary Commission. At that time there was organized "The Women's Central Association of Relief," whose duties were to collect suitable supplies, establish warehouses for their storage, bureaus for the examination and registration of nurses, and to provide supplementary aid in various forms to the Army Medical Service. Physicians' and surgeons' associations organized and opened a depot for lint and bandages.

The nervous energy soon led to excited discussions over medical matters, such, for example, as, What was the most suitable kind of lint? As trained nursing at that time was not a profession, the important problem of securing nurses received apparently little attention. It became evident in a short time that there were many complicated questions besides that of lint requiring solution by the Government. For this reason a delegation consisting of Dr. Bellows and several others representing the associations that had just been formed went to Washington. The utmost confusion prevailed there. The Government, deluged by suggestions from all parts of the country, recommending every kind of remedy for war or imaginary evils, was pursuing a "tentative policy" without definite purpose. The delegation taking its place with many others, was received courteously, rather because of its personnel than for its counsels.

At first a call was made upon General Scott, and though the Medical Department later declined assistance, one important point was gained. The experienced old commander of the Mexican War was cognizant of the condition of many of the volunteers, and a physical examination test was decided upon before the men were permitted to enlist. However, the carrying out of this regulation to weed out the unfit made such serious inroads upon the troops there was grave danger of arousing the country's alarm, so that many unqualified for hard service were still retained.

After the exercise of much diplomacy, the delegation succeeded in having appointed a Sanitary Commission to act in an advisory capacity to the Surgeon General's Department. Neither President Lincoln nor the Secretary of War looked with favor upon the proposition, the former referring to it as "a fifth wheel to the coach."

The obstacles that the Commission was forced to overcome and the consequent delay because of Government reluctance to avail itself of the invaluable service offered it were a serious handicap. No better proof is required than this of the need for a permanent and trained Red Cross organization, which, having received governmental authority beforehand, is constantly in touch with the departments that in war would require its assistance. It is then possible for its duties to be carefully studied out and regulated by both government and association officers when not under the stress and pressure of war. In the organization of our American Red Cross the surgeon generals of the army and navy are, respectively, chairman and vice-chairman of the War Relief Board. It would therefore be impossible for the situation that confronted volunteer assistance at the outbreak of the Civil War to again arise.

To be quite sure that the Commission's functions in no way interfered with the Government it was given the cumbersome title of " Commission of Inquiry and Advice in Respect to the Sanitary Interest of the United States Forces." Dr. Henry W. Bellows was selected as chairman, and Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted as secretary.

The Commission was divided into two committees; the first, on Inquiry, subdivided its work between committees on inquiries from experience of foreign wars, on inspection in camps for actual conditions, on matters of diet, clothing and quarters, etc. The second committee, on Advice, took upon itself a service somewhat greater than its name implied. Acting upon conclusions based upon the inquiries of the former committee, its duties were to get such conclusions approved by the Medical Bureau, ordered by the War Department, and carried out by officers and men.

Though the Commission became the active agency in the distribution of the vast quantities of material supplies, and so to the public lost its primary object, this was ever uppermost in the minds of the initiators. It looked to preventive measures. It planned to supplement Government deficiencies and with courteous firmness to secure the fulfilment of their responsibilities by the officers entrusted with the general welfare of the troops.

The commission was without any Government financial support and therefore independent of Government control. As bureaus of inspection, by various capable agents, were immediately necessary, a first appeal for funds was made to life insurance companies, which promptly responded. The inspection of twenty camps of volunteers near Washington revealed the facts: that there was no system of drainage, no attention paid to camp sanitation or bathing facilities provided for the men; the tents were overcrowded, the atmosphere about them offensive, the clothing of the men of the poorest quality, and generally very soiled. Police duty and the enforcement of camp regulations were totally inadequate. Rations were unsuitable. Beef and pork there were in plenty, but no fresh vegetables; and the food was wretchedly cooked, so that scurvy and dysentery were inevitable. The Western camps presented the same unfortunate conditions to the inspectors.

The Commission's first recommendations were for accommodations near the station at Washington to receive troops on their arrival, that part of the soldier's pay be remitted to his family, that the camps establish proper regulations and adequate policing, that competent cooks be employed, and fresh vegetables provided. Little attention was paid by the Government to these gratuitous recommendations. But the disastrous defeat at the first battle of Bull Run produced an impression that the recommendations had failed to do. Seventy-five questions as to the practical reasons for the defeat were asked of officers and men by the Commission. These questions included inquiries as to the strength of the regiments, when the last meal before the encounter was taken, the degree of vigor at the commencement, the causes of exhaustion before it began, the fulfilment of their duties by the Commissary Department, the physical and moral condition of the troops during the battle and causes of exhaustion, the extent and degree of demoralization and its causes. Never in history has so remarkable a category of questions looking to the explanation of a defeat after a severe battle been made on the spot and so soon after the result. The Government's incompetence in looking out for the welfare of the troops was made so manifest, based on the evidence obtained through the answers to these questions, that the report was withheld from the public. In a few regiments, like the Second Rhode Island, where inspection had shown that sanitary conditions prevailed and discipline was maintained in the camp before it left for the battlefield, no demoralization was found.

But the troops that previously had been illy fed, neglected and undisciplined started the battle exhausted and in a short space of time were converted into a routed, half-starved mob. Mr. Olmsted's report gives a graphic picture of Washington shortly after this defeat:

"Groups of men wearing parts of military uniforms and some of them with muskets were indeed to be seen; but upon second sight they did not appear to be soldiers. Rather they were a most woe-begone rabble, which had perhaps clothed itself with the garments of dead soldiers left on a hard-fought battlefield. No two were dressed completely alike; some were without caps, others without coats, others without shoes. All were alike excessively dirty, unshaven, unkempt, and dank with dew. The groups were formed around fires made in the streets, of boards wrenched from citizens' fences. Some were still asleep, at full length in the gutters and on doorsteps, or sitting on the curbstone resting their heads against the lamp-posts. Others were evidently begging for food at house-doors. Some appeared ferocious, others only sick and dejected—all excessively weak, hungry and selfish. There was no apparent organization; no officers were seen among them, seldom even a non-commissioned officer. At Willard's Hotel, however, officers swarmed. They, too, were dirty and in ill condition; but appeared indifferent, reckless, and shameless, rather than dejected and morose."

Justly alarmed, the Government inaugurated reforms that had been previously suggested, and the disinterested men of the Commission had the satisfaction of witnessing immediate improvement in the health, morale and contentment of the volunteers, who at first were considered unwilling to submit to strict military discipline.

The next important field of usefulness undertaken by the commission was the inspection of hospitals. The buildings selected for this purpose were generally unsuitable and badly arranged. The attendants and nurses were almost totally untrained and unqualified for such service. Encouraged by the Government's change of attitude, the Commission advised that temporary hospitals for fifteen thousand be built, and arranged in the "Pavilion System," each ward of fifty beds in a separate building.

The result of the adoption of this plan was a prompt reduction in the death rate. More thorough camp inspection by six especial delegates followed. This included inspection of the soldiers' bedding and clothing, of the sources and quality of water, the character of rations and cooking, camp discipline, qualification of medical officers, sickness and mortality among the troops, and the nature of local hospital accommodations. On the whole, the officers, though ignorant, were willing to receive suggestions and to try to carry them out.

Adequate transportation of the wounded was another problem to be considered; and also that pertaining to nurses, as many of the male nurses employed in the evacuation were inefficient and even brutal. Jealousy sometimes interfered with the efforts of the Commission, but back of it was the strong force of public confidence that enabled it to continue and to carry on its great work.

The purpose of the Commission—and to which it clung with an ever-steadfast tenacity—was defined by its officers in these words :

"The one point which controls the commission is just this : A simple desire and resolute determination to secure for the men who have enlisted in this war that care which it is the duty of the nation to give them. That care is their right, and in the Government or out of it, it must be given them, let who will stand in the way."

To carry out this purpose involved work so varied and so extensive that it is not easy to give even a brief account of its activities, yet everyone of them is of immediate practical value to-day.

The Commission printed thousands of leaflets prepared by expert specialists, containing the latest medical advice regarding the treatment of sick and wounded, and these were distributed among the surgeons, many of whom, hastily selected men, were poorly qualified for their duties. By patient and persistent efforts the Army Medical Service was reorganized, and more effective co-operation between it and the Quartermaster's Department, upon which it largely depended, was brought about.

Branches of the commission were established in the western cities, with depots for the collection of supplies to be distributed from central stations at army headquarters.

Evacuation of the wounded by steamers on the Mississippi and Ohio was another duty. Strange as it may seem, with all the improvements of medical service of armies, they are yet unable to keep pace with war's destruction. The picture of the conditions of the wounded after the capture of Fort Donelson, as described by an eye-witness, might find its reproduction back of many of the battle lines to-day:

"Some were just as they had been left by the fortune of war (four days before); their wounds, as yet, undressed, smeared with filth and blood, and all their wants unsupplied. Others had had their wounds dressed one, two or three days before. Others, still, were under the surgeons' hands, receiving such care as could be given them by men overburdened by the number of their patients, worn out by excessive and long-continued labor, without an article of clothing to give to any for a change, or an extra blanket, without bandages or dressings, with but two ounces of cerate to three hundred men, with few medicines and no stimulants, and with nothing but corn-meal gruel, hard bread, and bacon, to dispense as food."

Save for the Sanitary Commission, there was no centralized national relief work carried on. State governments, instead of co-operating, frequently sent transports for the use only of the men of their own regiments. These floated idly at their docks, while hundreds of unfortunate wounded from other States lay waiting vainly for transportation. The State's right in such a case becomes a nation's wrong.

In log huts, surrounded by fever breeding swamps, the wounded from the siege of Yorktown, wearing still their heavy uniforms, died by scores, until eight thousand of them were brought away by the Commission's transport steamers. The earliest hospital trains were formed of ordinary freight cars, without any comfort or convenience for the men, who, without proper food and attendants, often passed days of fearful and unnecessary suffering. Here was a new field for the Commission's activities. Heavy elastic loops for litter handles were fitted to the sides of the cars to carry three tiers—one above the other—of litters, equipped with mattresses, pillows and quilts; and invalid chairs were placed in the aisles between. Pantries were filled with blankets, clothing and other necessary supplies, and food could be served hot or cold during the exhausting journey. Surgeons and nurses with hospital appliances accompanied each train. These trains, originally organized and supported by the Commission, in time were taken over by the Army Medical Service, and during the war by this means over five hundred thousand wounded were transported.

Though the primary purpose of the Commission had been the adoption and carrying out of preventive measures, the scope of its labors had immensely broadened under the exigencies of the demands made upon it. One of the most important departments of its work was that devoted to the collection and distribution of supplies. This feature in war relief measures predominates in the public mind over others in importance, as it is in this particular line of aid that the people themselves are best able to play an active part. In all wars governments are forced to devote their chief energies and resources to the maintenance of the efficiency of the fighting forces, and this tends to leave the care of the sick and wounded man to the particular charge of the people. He is inevitably of secondary importance to the State. Because of this and because popular sympathy and public patriotism seek some method for practical expression, the incapacitated soldier depends largely upon volunteer aid.

During the Civil War, in the North some seven thousand Soldiers' Aid Societies were organized, and the estimated value of the supplies collected by them amounted to over fifteen millions of dollars. No provision was made by the Government for hospital garments, and practically none for sick diet, absolutely necessary for hospital use.

We have, on the one hand, the need of assistance, and, on the other, the irresistible and energetic desire of the people to give it. Hence, the great importance of centralized organization to bring together the need and the assistance, to direct energy, prevent waste and control enthusiasm. The public had to be made to realize the impossibility of sending supplies to individual soldiers, to be guided away from a zeal that made hundreds of mysterious headgears, called "Havelocks," and provided impossible delicacies for the sick.

The Sanitary Commission officers and women representatives of the Soldiers' Aid Societies met in conference in Washington and wisely decided that all supplies should go into the Commission stock for distribution where most needed. Bi-weekly bulletins were issued, giving particulars as to needs, and reports as to distribution of supplies in letters from the agents with the armies in the field. When scurvy made its appearance, potato and onion circulars were issued, and thousands of barrels of these were donated to the Commission by the farmers of the country.

Bazaars of modern times sink into insignificance before the great sanitary fairs, that raised nearly three millions of dollars. To these everyone poured out their gifts. The farmer brought his harvest, the manufacturer and the machinist the product of the mills and the shops, the artist or the artisan his handicraft. Everyone gave and everyone bought until there is no wonder that a single bazaar yielded a million of dollars.

At first the maintenance of its varied activities brought large demands upon the limited treasury of the Commission, and in October, 1862, failure loomed before it for lack of funds to carry on its work. Just at this critical moment California saved the day with a totally unexpected contribution of one hundred thousand dollars. With this the tide turned, and from then on funds were never wanting. California and the other Pacific States in selecting the far away Commission for their almoner, had set an example. In writing of the value of this aid the historian of the Sanitary Commission dwells on the fact of its example:

"The immense national advantage in a struggle for unity, of a common enterprise of humanity around which the homes of the country could rally, adding thus the united strength of the domestic feeling of the American people to its political and military power in the council and the field—would have been lost, if the United States Sanitary Commission had not succeeded. It was a desperate enterprise to attempt to unite by humane feeling what was so disunited by distance and the disintegrating tendencies of local pride and interest, as the different States and communities of so broad a country. Neither the excellency of the plan, nor the ability of its administration, could have succeeded against the force of sectional pride and independence, and the truly American love of multiplying local associations. Desperate efforts to throw off the yoke of the United States Sanitary Commission would constantly have been made by its already half-independent branches, and would have succeeded. Coaxing and compromising and humoring did wonders to bring about unity and co-operation. And we did not hesitate to say that the cash resources of the Commission, which alone commanded and utilized its supplies, were mainly due to the largeness, the constancy, the persistency of the contributions from California and the Pacific coast,—Nevada, Oregon, Idaho, and the Sandwich Islands—so that to California more than to any State in the Union is really due the growth, usefulness, success, the national reputation of the United States Sanitary Commission.''

The measures used to raise the large funds that continued to be forwarded to the Commission from the Far West were both ingenious and amusing. The entire young community bubbled over with enthusiasm and possibly with something of the generous spirit of the lucky gambler. Articles were sold at auction—a pullet, a nugget of gold, a box of strawberries followed each other and fell to the highest bidder under the hammer. A train's delay and an energetic sportsman resulted in the bagging of a single hare, which was carried through the twenty cars and sold over and over again until the engine was reached, with $157 for the cause.

Nevada equalled California in the originality of her schemes. To settle a bet a defeated candidate for mayor of the little two-year-old town of Austin carried a sack of flour to a neighboring village. Preceded by a band of music in a wagon, accompanied by his small son in full uniform and followed by a lively crowd of miners and other citizens, the defeated candidate paid his bet, and seizing the opportunity to utilize the amused and good-natured mob he proposed to sell the sack at auction. The crowd entered into his plan with enthusiasm and with the lavish hand of the gold miner. Soon five thousand dollars were secured; but the bag had not yet completed its work, for, delighted with his success, the would-be mayor continued with his bag of flour a successful journey from place to place throughout the State. It went to San Francisco, turned up in New York, and journeyed on with its indefatigable promoter to the fair at St. Louis. No less than forty thousand dollars did this one bag of flour gain for the Commission's treasury. Of the total fund of five million dollars, the Pacific Coast gave one and a quarter million. The Sanitary Fairs raised $2,736,000, leaving about $700,000, received from all other sources.

The distribution of supplies was divided into two classes : general and special. The general distribution was for the benefit of general field and regimental hospitals and for the men in camp or on the march. Special distribution included that for disabled and discharged soldiers and paroled prisoners. The wise plan was to supplement, not supplant, the Army Medical Service. Regulations required that the need must be apparent, and surgeons were called upon to explain why it existed, so that their responsibility was emphasized and wasteful measures prevented. The Commission did not encourage well-meaning people and others who sought self-exploitation or personal thanks entering into the hospitals to the annoyance of those in charge and the interference with proper discipline. It did not enter into the cry against Army " red tape," realizing that without the upholding of government discipline and responsibility the whole fabric would fall into ruin.

At ten collecting depots stationed in ten large cities all supplies were sorted, repacked and stored to replenish the stock of the two large distributing warehouses at the headquarters of the armies—Washington and Louisville. A careful system of accountability was carried on at both receiving and distributing stations. After such great battles as those of Antietam, Gettysburg, and the Campaign of the Wilderness, the prompt filling of requisitions by the distributing stations was of immense value in the relief of the wounded men. The commanding generals were full of appreciation of the service rendered and General Grant expressed his appreciation indirectly in an order issued in 1863:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF THE TENNESSEE,
Vicksburg, Miss., Sept. 28, 1863.

Commanding Officer, Cairo, Ill.:

Sir.—Direct the Post Quartermaster at Cairo to call upon the U. S. Sanitary agent at your place, and see exactly what buildings they require to be erected for their charitable and humane purposes.

The Commission has been of such great service to the country, and at Cairo are doing so much for this army at this time, that I am disposed to extend their facilities for doing good in every way in my power. You will therefore cause to be put up, at Government expense, suitable buildings for the Sanitary Commission, connecting those they already have, and also put up for them necessary outbuildings.

(Signed) U. S. GRANT,
Major General.

Because of its employment of paid agents, the Commission had to meet the same criticism that is sometimes experienced by the Red Cross to-day. This criticism arises, as do so many others, from the ignorance of real conditions and no better answer can be made to the critics of then and of to-day than that made in Mr. Stiles' "History of the Sanitary Commission:"

"It would hardly seem necessary to say one word upon the superior effectiveness, and the greater real cheapness, of paid labor in the kind of work in which the Commission was engaged during the war, had not its policy in this matter been not only questioned, but vehemently assailed by many well-meaning persons. Nothing could well be more lofty, than the scorn which was so often expressed during the war for those who would consent to receive money for their services in such a mission of mercy as this, but the Commission felt at the outset, and experience soon confirmed it in its opinion, that it had entered upon a work altogether too full of toil, drudgery, and repulsive reality to be upheld by any mere sentimental pity or sympathy for the poor soldier. Its object was to help the suffering by the best practical methods it could discover, not to give an opportunity for sympathizing friends at home to relieve their overburdened hearts by spending a few weeks in the army hospitals in busy yet fruitless attempts to aid him. The work of relieving the soldier was found in practice to be a very hard, continuous and prosaic one. The best mode of doing it was not learned by inspiration, but was to be acquired only by patient and long-continued watchfulness and labor. No man was fit for it who was not moved to undertake it by a principle of duty, but it was a novel idea that that duty was less conscientiously performed, and its lofty nature degraded by those who received compensation for their services. The great object which the Commission had in view of course was to secure the best services of the best men. The whole practice of the military service as well as that of every association or individual having work to do, and needing the help of agents to do it, was opposed to the assumption that any man's zeal and devotion in the performance of any duty is unfavorably affected by his receiving a salary. Why the rule heretofore universally recognized, that paid services have always been more steady, regular and abundant in results than those of mere volunteers, should be reversed in the matter of army relief, it is difficult to say."

The experience of our Civil War; in fact, of all serious wars, proves that prompt alleviation of human suffering upon the battlefield where a large number are wounded is a problem almost impossible of solution. The long continuation of the fighting, the difficulty under such conditions of rescuing the wounded, the distance from the base of supplies, the demand upon the limited number of surgeons and attendants, present the gravest obstacles to immediate aid. After the battle of Antietam on September 17, 1862, nearly ten thousand wounded Federal soldiers and a large number of the defeated Confederates remained to be cared for. Though every building—church, house and even barn—was filled with the wounded, there was not place enough; and shelterless hundreds lay in the woods and open fields. To the army surgeons were added scores of civilian medical men; but the need far exceeded the supply, and seriously wounded men waited days before receiving surgical care.

The lack of transportation facilities prevented the medical supplies already at Baltimore being shipped, though a day's delay meant to many a man life or death. The Sanitary Commission, perceiving this difficulty, had secured its own large wagons and by means of their use the first medical supplies were hurried to the front, to be followed by a daily service. Had it not been for this work of the Commission, even chloroform, opiates and surgical instruments would have been wanting; and by this means thousands of blankets and clothing were likewise provided.

All transportation facilities were in the Quartermaster Department's hands, thus leaving the medical service without any means of its own to forward its supplies. Before the battle of Perryville even surgeons were prevented from carrying supplies, and the pitiful condition of the twenty-five hundred wounded can be imagined. Three large army wagons and twenty-one ambulances were hastily filled from the Commission's warehouse at Louisville and rushed to the scene of the conflict, where the suffering and agony of the men were indescribable.

Herald of the spirit of the Red Cross, the Sanitary Commission recognized neither friend nor foe in the wounded man, for after Gettysburg supplies were freely offered to the Confederate surgeons, and side by side the Blue and the Gray cared for the sick and wounded of both armies. To provide aid at the front, field relief corps were organized, and to supplement these, auxiliary relief corps for the care of the wounded left behind or sent to hospitals.

It was probably this latter corps that first adopted the insignia of the Geneva cross, not in color, but in form, cut in a silver badge. At the conclusion of the war the corps presented to its chief, Mr. Frank B. F. Fay, a large silver cross suspended in a laurel wreath of carved oak. This a few years ago was presented to the American Red Cross by Mr. Fay's son.

The first duty undertaken by the Commissary Relief Corps was the organization of feeding stations along the routes for the evacuation of the wounded. Fredericksburg, after the battle of the Wilderness, with its twenty thousand wounded, like Castiglione after Solferino, was converted into one vast hospital. Totally unprepared for such an influx of wounded, only the presence of this trained and experienced corps, with the supplies transported to the city by the forty four-horse wagons of the Commission, brought any relief to this scene of awful confusion and misery. Death took its toll among these faithful laborers, and on the altar of sacrifice no nobler lives were offered up.

The labors of the Commission did not end with the care of the sick and wounded. Under a special relief service, soldiers' homes and convalescent camps aided the discharged men, furnished temporary food and lodgings, received their papers of discharge and secured their pay, provided transportation to their homes; in fact, constituted itself the faithful, conscientious guardian of the soldier incapacitated for active duty.

By establishing a hospital directory another important humanitarian act was accomplished. In the constant changes of the moving armies it was not possible for a soldier's family or friends to keep in touch with him. Weeks passed without information, and every battle brought renewed anxiety to those at home. Inquiries by the thousands poured in upon the Commission, and these led to the formation of a hospital directory, in whose four offices were registered the complete lists of over six hundred thousand men in the two hundred and thirty-three army hospitals, with reports as to their conditions obtained through the medical department. From this directory the constant stream of anxious inquiries were answered.

Though the Sanitary Commission was the great volunteer relief agency of the Civil War, there was organized by the Young Men's Christian Association a Christian Commission, which, while it also ministered to the sick and wounded, had for its primary purpose the spiritual and moral welfare of the soldiers. The study of the remarkable achievement of the Sanitary Commission lead to certain inevitable conclusions: first, that volunteer aid to the sick and wounded in war is absolutely essential; second, that unless, as was done during the Civil War, the selfish desire to create independent relief organizations is suppressed for the sake of true efficiency, there will result hopeless confusion, fruitless efforts and untold suffering for the victims of such a misguided and egoistic system of relief. The work of the Sanitary Commission shines out amidst the darkness and misery of war, a warning against failure and a guide to success.

CHAPTER IV

WOMEN IN WAR. MISS DOROTHEA DIX. MISS CLARA BARTON. "MOTHER BICKERDYKE." HELP FOR THE ENEMIES' WOUNDED. A VIVANDIERE. MRS. BARLOW'S STORY. RELIEF WORK IN THE CONFEDERACY. LACK OF RECORDS. SOLDIERS' AID SOCIETIES. HOSPITALS. CAPTAIN SALLIE TOMPKINS. PRIVATIONS AND INVENTIONS OF THE WOMEN OF THE SOUTH. AN INCIDENT IN THE TAKING OF COLUMBIA.

THE successful achievement of all great organizations is almost invariably accomplished by the well-systematized, directed and controlled labors of the many. So it was with the Sanitary Commission. There were those whose names shone out more brightly than the others in its myriad workers; executive ability fell into places of responsibility; training and experience brought their share in the glory. There were others who by reason of fortunate chance, though not connected with its service, became publicly recognized; and still others rightfully wore the halo of saints, having given their lives for their suffering fellow-men. But back of all these, in the quiet of the home, in the busy turmoil of the great supply depots, and by the bedsides of the sick, the wounded and the dying, were an army of unselfish, self-sacrificing men and women whose names mark no pages of history nor are lettered forth on any monuments of marble.

Women have been called the greatest victims of war, for day by day they bear the heartbreaking burden of anxiety for those they love. Busily they ply their nervous fingers or fill their active brains with plans for help so that there remains no time to let their imagination picture the fate of the well loved soldiers at the front. To them must fall the greatest share of the volunteer aid in time of war, and with devotion, self-sacrifice and courage did the women of the North and the women of the South fulfill this mission during our own great civil strife. No history of our American Red Cross can be complete without some reference to those who, though they labored before any flag of the Red Cross proclaimed its merciful services in the United States, yet were the pioneers in its duties.

In a record of "Woman's Work in the Civil War," published in 1867, the author says: "Among all the women who devoted themselves with untiring energy and gave talents of the highest order to the work of caring for our soldiers during the Civil War the name of Dorothea L. Dix will always take the first rank." Miss Dix, the daughter of a Worcester physician, while maintaining a school for girls in Boston, became interested in prison work, in poor-houses and insane asylum reforms. Her labors led her into many States and to the very doors of Congress for assistance, so that already she was recognized as a woman of marked ability and experience. The outbreak of the war brought her to Washington, where her first duty was the nursing of some wounded soldiers, victims of the Baltimore attack. The ability and practical experience of Miss Dix was such that when selected by the Secretary of War as "Superintendent of Female Nurses," the choice was universally commended. The appointment and approval of such nurses were placed in her hands. There existed no professional training as a standard, and it is interesting and somewhat amusing to read certain qualifications required by Miss Dix, such as maturity in years, plainness in dress, good health, and an unquestioned moral character. To be by no means endowed with personal attractions was a further commendation to Miss Dix's favor. Her duties were not confined to the selection of nurses, for she inspected hospitals and, like Florence Nightingale, had her obstacles to overcome because of the surgeons who resented any interference. She received no salary, maintaining from her private means ambulances, rest homes for nurses and soldiers, and depots of supplies.

In spite of many difficulties, due largely to the fact that her position was one without precedent and which lacked authority to enforce obedience, Miss Dix accomplished a great work. She gave herself, heart and soul, to her duties, without thought of name or fame, and no woman during the Civil War more fully deserved the gratitude of her fellow citizens.

Among the many scores of women whose names are associated with the care of the sick and wounded is that of Miss Clara Barton. As Miss Barton was not connected with either the Sanitary or the Christian Commission during the war, and as in the one hundred and twenty-eight volumes of the Civil War Reports in the War Department her name occurs only once, in connection with a letter written about prisoners at Annapolis, we turn to an account written by one of her friends.

Like Miss Dix, she was a native of Worcester County, Massachusetts; and also, like Miss Dix, began her work for the soldiers by caring for the wounded of the Massachusetts troops attacked on their way through Baltimore. During the Peninsular Campaign, with an ambulance of dressings and restoratives, she met the transports as they landed with the wounded at the wharves of Washington. In September, 1862, she followed General McClellan's army, and after the Battle of Antietam she and her assistants, turning over the dressings to the surgeons, devoted themselves to distributing bread and making gruel for the wounded. At Culpeper Court House, Fairfax Station and Fredericksburg her biographer tells of her continuous efforts to relieve the suffering. The story is related that after the battle of Fredericksburg among others she cared for a dying Confederate officer, who, in his gratitude, gave her valuable information as to the plans of the Southern forces to entrap the Federal Army in that city and advised her against going there. Miss Barton, however, regained her army corps, but it is not related whether or not she passed on the information she had received.

During the siege of Fort Wayne, in 1863, with a few men to aid her boil water, she washed the wounds of the men or prepared tea, coffee and other delicacies for the sick. After a rest in 1864 in preparation for the coming campaign, she returned to her labors. Towards the latter part of the war she devoted her energies to the tracing of missing soldiers. To reimburse her for her expenditures in this work Congress, in 1865, appropriated for her benefit $15,000.

Though Miss Dix's and Miss Barton's names are perhaps the best remembered among those of our Northern women, it is difficult to pass by hundreds of others who gave equally devoted and untiring service. There were those in the humbler walks of life, like "Mother Bickerdyke," whose zeal for her wounded soldiers was unbounded and untrammeled. Robust, with remarkable powers of endurance, of stern exterior and indomitable will, she was a tower of strength to the wounded men. She would forage for them regardless of personal danger. Tenderness itself to "her boys," she was a martinet towards careless hospital orderlies, and even surgeons were known to quake before her onslaught.

On one occasion, visiting one of the wards containing the badly wounded men, at eleven o'clock, A.M., she found that the assistant surgeon in charge of the ward, who had been out on a drunken spree the night before, and had slept very late, had not yet made out the special diet list for the ward, and the men, faint and hungry, had had no breakfast. She denounced him at once in the strongest terms, and as he came in, and with an attempt at jollity inquired, "Hoity-toity, what's the matter?" she turned upon him with, "Matter enough, you miserable scoundrel! Here these men, any one of them worth a thousand of you, are suffered to starve and die, because you want to be off on a drunk! Pull off your shoulder-straps," she continued, as he tried feebly to laugh off her reproaches, "pull off your shoulder-straps, for you shall not stay in the army a week longer." The surgeon still laughed, but he turned pale, for he knew her power. She was as good as her word. Within three days she had caused his discharge. He went to headquarters and asked to be reinstated Major General Sherman, who was then in command, listened patiently, and then inquired who had procured his discharge. "I was discharged in consequence of misrepresentation," answered the surgeon, evasively. "But who caused your discharge?" persisted the general. "Why," said the surgeon, "I suppose it was that woman, that Mrs. Bickerdyke." "Oh!" said Sherman. "Well, if it was she, I can do nothing for you. She ranks me."

Intense as was the war feeling, it did not blot out humanity. Georgiana Woolsey in her graphic "Three Weeks at Gettysburg," in many a story shows that the tenderness of the woman's nature was extended to the soldier in gray as well as the one in blue. To the sender of a number of boxes of supplies she wrote: "You will not, I am sure, regret that those wretched men—those enemies, sick and in prison—were helped and cared for through your supplies, though certainly they were not in your mind when you packed your barrels and boxes." A soldier has respect for a courageous foe, and it is generally the civilian at home who needs Lord Roberts' fine advice: "Do not kill Krueger with your tongues."

"'Have you friends in the army, madam?' a rebel soldier, lying on the floor of the car, said to me, as I gave him some milk. 'Yes, my brother is on an officer's staff.' 'I thought so, ma'am. You can always tell; when people are good to soldiers they are sure to have friends in the army.' 'We are rebels, you know, ma'am,' another said. 'Do you treat rebels so?' It was strange to see the good brotherly feeling come over the soldiers, our own and the rebels, when side by side they lay in our tents. 'Hullo, boys! this is the pleasantest way to meet, isn't it? We are better friends when we are as close as this than a little farther off.' And then they would go over the battles together. 'We were here,' and 'you were there,' in the friendliest way."

Another interesting and amusing story told by Miss Woolsey rather reflects on the Gettysburg farmer, but shows how the Southern wounded were also cared for in her camp:

"Few good things can be said of the Gettysburg farmers, and I only use Scripture language in calling them 'evil beasts.' One of this kind came creeping into our camp three weeks after the battle. He lived five miles only from the town, and had 'never seen a rebel.' He heard we had some of them, and had come down to see them. 'Boys,' we said,—marching him into the tent which happened to be full of rebels that day, waiting for the train,—'Boys, here's a man who never saw a rebel in his life, and wants to look at you;' and there he stood with his mouth wide open, and there they lay in rows, laughing at him, stupid old Dutchman. 'And why haven't you seen a rebel?' One of us said, 'why didn't you take your gun and help to drive them out of your town?' 'A feller might'er got hit!'—which reply was quite too much for the rebels; they roared with laughter at him, up and down the tent."

Another type of woman was Annie Etheridge, a vivandière, or fille du régiment. Like an Amazon, she rode in the midst of the shot and shell, with utter disregard of danger, that she might find and aid the wounded; she encouraged the men in the trenches and led back many a straggling deserter to the battle line.

Then there were those noble women—many of them—who, like Mrs. Barlow, gave up their lives in the hospital service. During the hearings before the Senate Committee for the Memorial to the Women of the Civil War, Captain James A. Scrymser gave the simple story of her short married life. He and his friend, Frank Barlow, had agreed if civil war arose they would go. On President Lincoln's call for volunteers in April, 1861, they met at Delmonico's, one of the recruiting offices:

"So upstairs we went and enlisted. As Barlow left the armory he said, 'I am going uptown to be married.'

"The next morning when the regiment was paraded on Union Square I saw a handsome woman on the curbstone in tears. Barlow beckoned to me and said, 'Jim, that is the bride.'

"When the regiment marched she took his arm and marched with it down Broadway. Finally we brought up in Washington and encamped in Franklin Square on Fourteenth Street. Barlow had been made a captain and I was a lieutenant. Barlow at that time did not look to be over eighteen years of age. In fact, he was known as the boy general in the army. One Sunday morning the regiment having left the camp, I was in charge of the camp grounds.

"I heard a lady talking outside the guardhouse to one of the sentries. I heard a woman's voice say, 'I will come in.' The answer was, 'No, you can not come in.' She said, 'I will come in; I am the wife of Captain Barlow.' She was met with the reply, 'No, you don't; that boy is no husband of yours.'

"The next time I saw Mrs. Barlow was on the morning of the battle of Antietam, the 17th of September, 1862. I was riding through what was known as the east woods, east of the Dunkard Church, which was then about the centre of the battle, and there I found this lone woman. I do not suppose there was another woman within five miles. I said, 'Mrs. Barlow, what are you doing here?' She replied, 'You know, I belong to the Christian Commission and I left Baltimore yesterday and was detailed for service at Hagerstown, and last night I heard there was going to be a fight down here and so here I am.' I said, 'Did you leave Hagerstown last night?' She answered, 'Yes; and I have tramped seventeen miles, and here I am, and this is my only escort,' pointing to a negro with a wheelbarrow, a trunk, and a handbox.

"I had seen a field hospital being organized down in a valley, so I took Mrs. Barlow there and left her in charge of the surgeons. About noon I was out at the front and saw Barlow brought in on a stretcher. I directed that he be taken down to the field hospital, as I knew his wife was there. In a few minutes she was alongside of him and she saved his life by careful nursing.

"Again at the battle of Gettysburg, in July, 1863, Barlow was terribly wounded and fell within the enemy's lines. General Early and General Gordon came along and when they saw Barlow, General Gordon said, 'Here is a Yankee officer, perhaps we can do something for him.' General Early remarked, 'No, he is too far gone; we can not do anything for him.' General Gordon then got down and gave Barlow a drink; whereupon Barlow raised himself on his elbow and said, 'General Early, I will live to whip you yet.' Barlow gave him a package saying, 'Here are some letters from my wife; if I die, destroy them; if I live, keep them and give them to me."

"Mrs. Barlow was with General Hancock's command fourteen miles away. Hancock's command did not reach Gettysburg until the afternoon. She soon heard that Barlow had fallen wounded within the enemy's lines and appealed to General Hancock for permission to go through to care for him. He refused, saying, 'No, Madam; for military reasons you can not pass through the lines.' However, after dark, she went down to the picket lines, gathered up her skirts and ran over to the enemy's lines. She said both sides fired on her. As soon as she entered the enemy's lines she was treated with the utmost courtesy, taken to the hospital and she again nursed Barlow and again saved his life.

"I speak of this lady simply as one of a type of which there were thousands, who would have shown the same courage and devotion under like circumstances.

"At the battle of the Wilderness, Barlow fulfilled his threat when he said he would whip General Early. He captured half of General Early's command and sixteen of his guns, the only redeeming feature of that battle. He was again wounded and was placed upon a steamer and sent to Washington, and on that steamer his guardian angel, Mrs. Barlow, reappeared. Again she nursed him and again saved his life. Mrs. Barlow died of camp fever in 1864. Barlow entered the service as a private and retired as a major general. Afterwards he was elected Secretary of State and Attorney-General of the State of New York. A few days before his death—I think it was in 1896—I went to see him and he said to me, 'Jim, do you remember Arabella? The time will come when the finest monument in this country will be built to the memory of the women of the Civil War,' and I am here, gentlemen, to ask that you will appropriate the sum necessary for the site as provided in this bill."

Such were the types of hundreds of Northern women who did the Red Cross work of Civil War days. There were thousands who then, as now, because of sentiment or egotism, overwhelmed officials and relief organizations with their applications to nurse the wounded, with little or no comprehension of the hardship, dangers and sacrifices involved.

The history of war relief work in the South is not so easily obtained as in the North. It is to be regretted that there are so few records of the same self-sacrificing service given by the women of the Confederacy. In those days of sorrow for " The Lost Cause," of poverty from long sacrifice, and of slow reconstruction there was no heart to gather up reports and statistics of such work. Forty years later by careful gleaning from newspaper files and by long delayed written memoirs the women of South Carolina gathered together such a record; and what was true of the work in the "Old Palmetto State" was doubtless true of all the others in the Southern Confederacy.

No central organization like that of the Sanitary Commission existed, but innumerable soldiers' aid societies sprang up everywhere. A civilian army there as in the North required not only lint, bandages and garments for the hospitals, but home-made uniforms for the soldiers and, in their case, the newly adopted flag for the regiments. Like the women of the Revolution, the unprepared troops demanded their aid, and their clever ingenuity was only equalled by their persistent courage.

On July 4, 1861, a proposition was laid before the President of the Confederacy by South Carolinians leading to the establishment, under volunteers, of hospitals along the line of defence, but thinking this would impede rather than aid the efficiency of the medical service it was not favorably received. On the failure of the plan it was decided to establish at Charlottesville a depository to collect and furnish hospital stores, attendants and nourishment. In reply to an appeal, supplies poured in from all sides, and from the Young Men's Christian Association men nurses were sent. A wayside shelter was fitted up near the railroad for the sick, which soon located in larger quarters, half way between the courthouse and the university under the name of "The Midway." It was the first volunteer hospital in Virginia. The success of a plan at first unfavored led to the establishment with official approval of several similar institutions, some of which took the cheerier name of Soldiers' Homes. Temporary wayside hospitals were occasionally maintained in tents, which, were it not for matters of temperature, are generally more satisfactory than the old, unsanitary buildings often selected in war for such a purpose.

Captain Sallie Tompkins is dear to the memory of many a Virginia man and woman. Of her service one who knew her writes:

"When the government was removed to Richmond Miss Sallie Tompkins with some other gentlewomen of wealth and standing opened the Robinson Hospital on Main Street, of which she took charge using her own servants and her own means to run it—until those means were wholly exhausted. The servants remained faithful until Richmond was evacuated. 'As medicines were contrabrand of war, her treatment,' says her nephew, 'for all diseases was air, light, turpentine and whiskey, all home products. If these failed, her panacea was prayer and the Bible. The percentage of recoveries holds its own with the most scientific treatment of to-day. When her private fortune was spent, the Confederate War Office bestowed upon her a captain's commission so that she could draw supplies from the Commissary Department. This commission can be seen in the Confederate Museum, Richmond. Many of the negroes from Poplar Grove, her former home in Mathews County, Virginia, had been freed and provided for during their natural lives.' Miss Tompkins is now an inmate of the Confederate Women's Home, Richmond, having spent her originally large fortune in active beneficence. She cannot be canonized in the Episcopal Church but only saints can do the work she did.

"Well organized hospitals in times of peace are sad places, but words cannot fitly paint the horrors of even the best during war time, especially when famine was added to the wounds, bruises, and gangrened sores of the patient victims in them."

As the pathetic trainloads of misery moved backward from the front willing hands carried in food or cooling drinks. It is told of one cleanly old lady, at Sumter that she boarded the trains every morning to wash the soldiers, returning home by a later train.

The system of bookkeeping of the South Carolina Bureau of Supplies at Charlottesville provided for an invoice book for receipts, issue book for distribution in gross, and a requisition book for those given out to individuals on request from officials. In the cities, towns and villages of the State money was contributed, supplies purchased or made, and box after box followed the armies or was sent to this depository. As the war went on and the conflict was maintained, the inventive faculty was put to a severe test and never found wanting. Leaves were gathered in nearby forests to dye the wool and cotton; and mixtures of blue, black and white carded together, were spun by hand and woven into cloth uniforms for the Confederate soldiers. After every available blanket was given away even carpets were taken from the floors for the use of the troops. Wool stuffed mattresses were ripped apart that their contents might be recarded and woven into cloth. Trunks and attics were ransacked for old garments and bits of cloth which, raveled out and respun, were knitted into socks. The dresses of the women themselves were of home-spun, the gloves made from silk stockings that had danced through the balls of ante-bellum days. The old voluminous paternal cape supplied jackets for all the girls of the family. Buttons were cut from pieces of gourds and persimmon seeds did service on the children's clothes, while palmetto, corn shucks or straw were braided and woven into hats, trimmed with well-washed bits of ribbon.

Equally resourceful became the women in the provisioning of their household. Coffee was made of rye, wheat, or sweet potatoes, sweetened with sorghum or honey. Blackberry vine leaves disguised themselves as tea; the waves of the sea gave them their salt; the herbs or roots were their medicines. In the evening blazing knots of pine in the chimney provided their only light, save when some unusual occasion justified the extravagance of tallow candles. Under the women's hands the plantations were cultivated and the crops raised. It was in the midst of such deprivations with ever cheerful courage that the women of the South gave much of their little to the sick and wounded. They gave themselves as well. The wayside hospitals, developments of the rest stations, grew up along the lines of evacuation of the wounded, who received there nursing care. A surgeon who had seen service in one of these hospitals in 1866 volunteered in the Austrian Red Cross, and is said to have put to good use his experience in aiding the establishment of similar institutions in Europe. The good Sisters of Our Lady of Mercy, faithful to their name, went into Virginia to minister to the wounded of the army near the front. An unusual gift, though not an infrequent one, numbered among donations for the hospitals would appear as "One negro man as nurse." Among the lists of deaths published in a Charleston paper is that of "One of our faithful nurses, Soye, the property of William Rovenal, Esq." When a call came for help for five thousand prisoners ill with typhoid fever, in three hours' time many boxes of food were packed and sent off to the sick and starving men.

Page after page with their prosaic lists of donors and supplies tell the same old story of the practical expression of woman's love and sympathy. True to the traditions of war, crowds of famished, frightened refugees poured into the cities on the approach of the Northern armies, adding their needs to the already heavy burden. In 1861 the destruction of a large part of Charleston by fire brought another horror upon the unfortunate people and taxed their efforts to the utmost to care for the homeless and destitute of their own city.

In August, 1863, began the siege of the city, and after 568 days it fell. Casualties sometimes occurred among the women and children, their houses were shattered and sometimes burned. Our papers to-day are filled with reports of the burning and destruction of cities, and it behooves us to remember how much a part and parcel of war are all such horrors. To watch shells bursting overhead, to listen to the roar of guns and to fly from the destruction of their homes brought war close to these women of the South. Very vivid are their accounts of the burning and sacking of Columbia. Yet in spite of the gloom and anxiety there came the occasional touch of humor that links so closely tragedy to comedy, as illustrated by one of the writers.

"Never shall I forget a little incident that occurred on Thursday afternoon before the occupation on Friday morning. I was promenading the front piazza listening to the dull boom of cannonry as it came borne on the western breeze from across the river, feeling all the horrors of the situation when my attention was called to a ragged little darkey—one of the institutions of all Southern cities—as he went whistling quite unconcernedly on the opposite side of the street. Suddenly a big shell came hurtling through the air, striking a limb just over his head, shivering it into a thousand pieces. Like lightening the little Arab rolled himself into an inconceivably small black ball, crowding against the fence, with scarcely anything visible but the whites of his eyes, which he turned in amazement towards the shattered limb. For one brief moment he lay there. Then springing up he exclaimed: 'Fore God; I thought he had me,' and fled like the wind."

In reading this South Carolina record it has proved impracticable to single out individuals, so universal was the interest and the assistance; and the lack of records for the other states, in which were given the same devoted labor and service, makes it impossible. North and South alike the women loved and labored, sorrowed and sacriced, as only women do.

CHAPTER V

AN ATTEMPT TO ORGANIZE AN AMERICAN RED CROSS. WAS THE TREATY OF GENEVA AN ENTANGLING ALLIANCE? EARLY DAYS OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS. DISASTERS. CUBAN RECONCENTRADOS. THE SPANISH WAR.

THOUGH the first use of the Geneva cross as a means of designating a relief personnel was evidently made by the Commissary Relief Corps of the Sanitary Commission, our government had not signed the treaty, and even had it done so it would not be operative as an agreement under the condition of civil war. The treaty is not mandatory upon any country unless the enemy's government is also party to the compact, and in civil war the state or any party in rebellion cannot sign such a treaty until its government has been officially recognized by a number of the other signatory powers.

At the time of the convention Mr. Seward looked with doubtful eyes upon the propriety of sending representatives of our government save as informal delegates. He had a wholesome dread of any entangling foreign alliance that made him naturally cautious regarding anything in the nature of a treaty. The Secretary of State is reported to have said of the convention:

"Our government, while always ready to forward all humanitarian action, has a well-understood policy of holding itself aloof from all European congresses or compacts of a political nature. The congress at Geneva being for the modification of international laws of war is one of great significance and the sending of delegates officially empowered to represent and act for the United States was from the many difficulties apparent, nearly or quite impossible. The government wishes to act as a free agent, with option in the premises, and in its own good time."

It was due to this attitude on the part of the government that many years passed before the United States affirmed this humanitarian treaty. In 1865, after the close of the war, and again in 1867, the Swiss Federal Council suggested to the United States Government the adoption of the treaty. These communications were sent by the State Department to the Secretary of War for recommendations and returned without comment.

On July 20, 1866, a number of men who had been the most active in the Sanitary Commission formed the American Association for the Relief of Misery on the Battlefields. Its objects were to obtain the government's adherence to the treaty of Geneva and to maintain a permanent relief society. Its badge was the Red Cross insignia on a white ground. Neither the government nor the public could it arouse into action favorable to the treaty, though during the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 it received generous contributions, which were forwarded to the belligerent nations. It was the first Red Cross organization of the United States, but holding an anomalous position under a government that had not acceded to the treaty under which it must function in time of war, in 1871 its existence ceased.

In the autumn of 1869 Miss Clara Barton, one of the many women who had aided in the care of the sick and wounded during the Civil War, met at Geneva members of the International Red Cross Committee, and they expressed their regret that the United States Government, which through its own orders during the war had manifested such a humanitarian spirit, had not yet accepted the convention of Geneva. Miss Barton later witnessed the work of the Red Cross during the War of 1870. In 1877, after her return to America, Monsieur Moynier, President of the International Red Cross Committee, decided to make a further effort to obtain the adherence to the treaty by our government. For this purpose a special letter was sent to Miss Barton to deliver to President Hayes. He in his turn referred it to the State Department, where it again met the fate of previous appeals. In 1881, through President Garfield, another effort was made, which elicited a response from Mr. Blaine, giving assurance that, with the President's approval, the adoption of the treaty would be recommended to Congress. Encouraged by this promise, a Red Cross organization was incorporated in the District of Columbia in July, 1881, under the name of "The American Association of the Red Cross," of which Miss Clara Barton was president. President Garfield did not live to see the adoption of the treaty, but President Arthur and Mr. Blaine secured its confirmation by the Senate without a dissenting vote, in March, 1882. The President then issued a proclamation making public the convention, "To the end that the same in every article and clause thereof may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and citizens thereof."

Hardly had one small branch of the American Red Cross started into existence at Dansville, N. Y., before Nature gave it work to do. Across the great forests of Michigan swept one of those raging forest fires, so constant a menace to our Northwestern states. Crackling and roaring, with curling tongues of flame, it devoured trees and house, live stock and barns, and before its wild fury fled the terrified victims, men, women and children. Murky clouds of smoke darkened even the distant skies over the town where this little Red Cross began its work of relief. Money and clothing were quickly collected and sent to the sister state.

If fire had given the Red Cross its first occupation, wind and water were ready to follow. In 1882 and 1883 over its banks tore the flood waters of the Mississippi, covering for hundreds of square miles the rich cotton and sugar plantations, sweeping away to the gulf scores of little houses, and frightened people clinging to their roofs or hanging, cold, wet and famished, to the swaying trees. But a little later, like an invisible giant, a fearful cyclone cut a path of crushed desolation thirty miles wide across Mississippi and Louisiana from the river to the gulf. The earlier floods had made faint calls to the Red Cross, new to its duties, but these had been sufficient to bring to it a realization of flood relief work. In February, 1884, without warning a sudden thaw after heavy snows raised the waters of the Ohio River to a great height. Over the farm lands, flooding villages, towns and cities, the river poured its mass of muddy waters. A cry for help arose from the raging torrents. Congress appropriated hundreds of thousands of dollars; rations and tents were rushed to the scene by the army for immediate relief.

Miss Barton, the president of the Red Cross, and other members of her staff, left for the West, establishing headquarters first at Cincinnati and later three hundred miles below at Evansville, where relief supplies poured in upon them. Realizing the need for aid all along the flood-swept valley, a 400-ton steamer was secured, loaded with clothing and coal to the water's edge, and started down the river, flying the Red Cross flag, the first of the many ships of mercy to fly that banner from its foremast. Back and forth from bank to bank it wended its way, amidst debris from the city, farm and forest. Every little hill or promontory held its cluster of wretched fugitives to whom the loaded boat carried help from the heaped-up stores. Local relief committees from the large places were provided with a goodly stock for distribution. Was there ever a ship with a less romantic name than the "Josh V. Throop?" It could not even be mentioned with the grace of the feminine gender. But from Evansville to Cairo—four hundred miles of woe-begone people and long-drawn-out assistance—no name was ever more welcome.

Hardly had it reached Evansville on its return than there came a mighty wail from the Mississippi Valley, where, washing away the river dikes, the flood had suddenly created an inland sea, a great waste of waters, at some places thirty miles wide. Again the army rushed to the rescue with emergency supplies. Human victims were the rightful objects of its aid, but pitiful was the plight of the unfortunate animals. There had been no chance to get them away. Some of the owners had tried to save them on frailly constructed rafts, where they were forced to abandon the miserable creatures. Sometimes they had huddled together on low hummocks of ground, where they stood knee-deep in water until weakened by starvation they fell and drifted away in the currents.

Abandoning the "Throop," which was not suitable for navigation on the Mississippi, the "Mattie Bell" was chartered by the Red Cross at St. Louis, and loaded with hay, corn, oats, and salt for the cattle, with clothing, cooking utensils, medicines and other supplies not furnished by the government. To the simple farmers, to the tattered negroes, to appealing women and children and to hungry-eyed cattle all the way from St. Louis to New Orleans the Red Cross ship carried its aid. Long after an old Uncle Amos told Miss Barton that above a hundred little cabin doors along the Mississippi the negroes had put up the Red Cross, that "Every night befo' dey goes to bed dey names your name and prays God to bless you an' de Red Cross dat he sent to dem in time of trouble and distress."

A drouth in Texas that brought thousands of families to the verge of starvation, a cyclone in Illinois that destroyed the larger part of a prosperous little town, killing some and injuring others, called for Red Cross aid.

A new form of calamity had to be met in an epidemic of yellow fever that broke out at Jacksonville, Florida, in 1888. Not until after the reorganization of the Red Cross in 1905 was a corps of graduated nurses for active service provided, so that this early epidemic was met by the hasty gathering together of some thirty persons, mainly colored women, who had nursed yellow fever patients in New Orleans. On the way to Jacksonville, ten of these were dropped off in the inky darkness of a rainy night to make their way to the small town of Macclenny, where the epidemic had stricken down most of the population. Here, the Red Cross reported that helpful, if untrained service, was given for more than two months. Some untold story of unfaithfulness on the part of the remainder of the nurses is hinted at in the account of the relief work.

In connection with this yellow fever epidemic, it is an interesting fact that Miss Jane A. Delano, then a young graduate nurse, to whom is due the splendidly organized Red Cross Nursing Corps of to-day, volunteered her services to Jacksonville, and with several nurses under her was in charge of the Sand Hill Hospital. Though it was not then known that the mosquito was the carrier of yellow fever germs, Miss Delano insisted upon the use of mosquito bars, and not one of her nurses suffered from the fever.

In a slight drizzle of rain, Decoration Day, with its music, its flags and its flowers, had passed at Johnstown, lying peacefully in the Conemaugh Valley, with never a dream of the awful fate before it. The drizzle developed into a downpour of rain. River and creek, joining their rapidly rising waters, flooded the town without developing serious alarm. Suddenly, the horrified people saw rushing down upon them a wall of water, carrying everything before it when the dam of South Fork Lake gave way. The narrowness of the valley added to the force of the rushing torrent. Building after building crumbled in its grasp, carrying down with them those who had not gained the perilous though only security, their house roofs. The total number known to have been drowned was 2228, and the entire damage to property, as sworn to by claimants, amounted to $9,674,105.

The State Flood Relief Commission's report of the relief work gives a total of $4,116,801, of which amount Miss Barton reported the Red Cross received and expended $39,000. The president of the Red Cross and her assistants erected at Johnstown warehouses and offices, and were actively engaged in the distribution of supplies. Boarding houses were also built, and proved of much value to thousands whose duties kept them at Johnstown until their houses could be repaired or rebuilt. It will be noted in the relief work report what an unusual percentage of the personal losses were secured in contributions. It is also to be noted that according to the Red Cross statement less than one per cent. of the contributed funds were entrusted to the Red Cross.

Nature had still another form of calamity to provide, one so far almost unknown in our land of plenty—the disaster of famine. Two years of poor harvest, followed by the almost total failure of that of 1891, over two hundred thousand square miles in Central Russia, the most productive part of the country, brought thirty millions of people face to face with famine. Large appropriations were made by the Russian government; the Russian Red Cross and wealthy citizens did what they could, but the need was far beyond the supply. Famine does not startle the world by sudden headlines in the papers announcing its thousands of victims, as does some fearful earthquake. Slowly the wretched story of starvation creeps forth to the outer world. Our American people, quick to respond to such a pathetic cry, sent over five shiploads of food supplies, one of which was sent by the Red Cross and consisted of corn donated by Iowa farmers. With this and those sent by other contributors the American minister at St. Petersburg estimated more than seven hundred thousand people were fed for a month. Life came to them from the far away countries, and their appreciation was deep and sincere. The mayor of St. Petersburg said in an address to the American donors:

"The Russian people know how to be grateful. If up to this day these two great countries, Russia and the United States, have not only never quarreled, but on the contrary, wished each other prosperity and strength always, these feelings of sympathy shall grow only stronger in the future—both countries being conscious that, in the season of trial for either it will find in the other cordial succor and support. And when can true friendship be tested if not in the hour of misfortune?"

With a gift at Easter of three colored eggs a peasant of Semara wrote to a Russian editor this letter, with the request that both be sent to America:

"Christ is risen! To the merciful benefactors, the protectors of the poor, the feeders of the starving, the guardians of the orphans—Christ is risen! North Americans! May the Lord grant you a peaceful and long life and prosperity in your land, and may your fields give abundant harvests—Christ is risen. Your mercifulness gives us a helping hand. Through your charity you have satisfied the starving. And for your magnificent alms accept from me this humble gift which I send to the entire American people for your great beneficence, from all the hearts of the poor, filled with feelings of joy."

True friendship is expressed, not in words, but in deeds. The Red Cross carries on its wonderful work for the sake of suffering humanity, but all unconsciously it is laying foundation stone after foundation stone in the great structure of international brotherhood yet to be built.

No part of our country may count itself free from the need of Red Cross aid, and already a dozen States had received assistance from the small organization. The low sea islands off the coast of South Carolina were the next field of its labors. A hurricane, piling up the waters of the sea into a huge tidal wave, beat over these islands, little more than sand bars, drowning several thousand persons and destroying the small homes and plantations of the others. The little huts, built without foundations, collapsed like houses of cards before the storm of wind and water. The people were mainly negroes, and the ruin of their cotton crops, just gathered, left them absolutely destitute. To have simply clothed and fed them would have brought utter demoralization. It was essential to provide work, so the repairing of roads, the opening of old drains and the making of new ones were undertaken, while the women were given sewing to do; and all were paid in food and supplies. The tools and farming implements were marked with the Geneva Cross, which not only enhanced their values in their users' eyes but seemed to throw a happy, industrious charm about the work. Looking to further rehabilitation, potatoes and corn were given out and planted for the next harvest, and thereby two crops were produced, to the wonderment and delight of the dusky population. The wells, overrun with sea water, brought about seriously unsanitary conditions that necessitated the creation of a clinic and dispensary in connection with the relief work. Among people, accustomed as were these, to the medical quackery of the charlatan, little better than the Indian medicine men, it was a trifle difficult to make an accurate diagnosis from such description as was given by the darkeys, one of whom described his ailments thus: "I got a lump in de stomach here, sir, and he jump up in de t'roat and den I gits swingness in de head. Dat lump he done gone all over sometime; I fine him here and den he go way down in de leg."

Far into the East went next the Red Cross. One of those periodic disturbances between Moslems and Christians broke out in Armenia and left barbaric horrors in its wake. A committee to raise relief funds was organized in New York, and the Red Cross was asked to undertake the work. Unexpected obstacles arose. The old prejudice against the cross, born of the days of the Crusades, was to be dealt with. An official notification came that the Red Cross could not enter Turkey. The personnel of the relief corps was already on the way to London when the message arrived, and there it had to wait for diplomacy to settle the problem. Finally it was agreed that the American Minister to Turkey should be permitted to appoint a relief committee, and he promptly selected that of the Red Cross, enabling it to proceed to Constantinople. Miss Barton in an interview there with the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Tewfik Pasha, explained the plans of the relief work, that it was to be open and above board, asking the same fair treatment and protection in return. This was promised and the promise fulfilled. The five expeditions that were sent out were constantly provided with a Turkish guard at the expense of that Government.

But there were still other difficulties in the way. Our American people are strangely obtuse to the naturally resentful attitude aroused by the expression of criticisms and attacks in our public press, often based on incomplete information. How were the Red Cross people to secure the necessary permission and protection from a Government whose sovereign was Commander of the Faithful and which found in our American papers articles announcing that a pro-Armenian alliance was working "hand in glove" with the Red Cross. The alliance, according to the press, was to be formed throughout the country, aided by Governors of the States. The watchwords of its propaganda, printed large, being "God against Allah, Christ against Mohammed, Bible against Koran, Heaven against Hell." Yet the Turkish Government did finally grant permission, and the relief expedition set forth, Miss Barton remaining at headquarters in Constantinople to take charge of matters there and to reply to the dissatisfaction with the Red Cross that arose in the finance committee in America. The expedition found it necessary to travel over the rocky defiles and snowy passes in caravan form, the personnel journeying on horseback, the supplies carried on camels and the Turkish guard in attendance. To avoid the danger of infection from typhus and smallpox, on arriving in most of the villages tents were pitched in the outskirts The aid of the courageous missionaries scattered throughout the country proved invaluable in the distribution of food, clothing, tools, farming implements, live stock, seeds and medicines. The Red Cross agents generally employed natives to nurse the typhus victims, for, though not aware of the medium of infection, they recognized the importance of avoiding too close contact with the disease, and so themselves fortunately escaped this serious danger.

As the Finance Committee in America raised the funds for the relief work, it required an account of the receipts and expenditures. This was contrary to the usual policy of the Red Cross officials of the old régime who had declined before to make any such reports public. This financial statement is to be found among the reports of the national organization.

The end of the nineteenth century brought to the American Red Cross the first and only demand from its own country for relief under war conditions, and sharply emphasized the fact that it was totally inadequate to the fulfilment of its duties It is impossible in this brief outline to go into detailed accounts of conditions. Suffice it to say that war is a national calamity and the necessary relief it entails can only be efficiently maintained by a national organization in close affiliation and understanding with the Medical Service of both army and navy on the one hand, and possessed of public confidence and united support on the other. According to the congressional charter of the American Red Cross, its purposes are clearly defined for war relief work as follows:

"To furnish volunteer aid to the sick and wounded of armies in time of war, in accordance with the spirit and conditions of the conference of Geneva of October, 1863, and also of the treaty of the Red Cross, or the treaty of Geneva, of August 22, 1864, to which the United States of America gave its adhesion on March 1, 1882. And for said purposes to perform all the duties devolved upon a national society by each nation which has acceded to said treaty. To act in matters of voluntary relief and in accord with the military and naval authorities as a medium of communication between the people of the United States of America and their army and navy, and to act in such matters between similar national societies of other governments through the 'Comité International de Secours,' and the Government and the people and the army and navy of the United States of America."

No small group of individuals can cope with the needs of war. If this is attempted the result will invariably be the creation of innumerable independent organizations, full of enthusiasm but with neither knowledge, experience nor training, and with no well informed central officers duly authorized by the Government to bring about that union and co-operation which alone can secure success. Because of the fact that no strong national Red Cross existed on the outbreak of the war with Spain in 1898, the inevitable formation of many independent committees and so-called "national" organizations occurred. Out of the tangle of many reports it is not possible to obtain a connected story.

The unrest and disturbances that had existed for a long time in the island of Cuba induced the Spanish authorities to adopt very drastic, and what were considered cruel, methods. Men, women and children by thousands, herded together near seacoast towns and surrounded by barbed wire network of fences, dotted here and there with guard houses, were left without adequate shelter or provisions, so that their condition became one of intense suffering and misery.

A report on this situation made by Senator Procter after a personal investigation not only aroused public sympathy but led President McKinley, through John Sherman, Secretary of State, to appeal for funds, provisions and clothing to be sent for distribution to General Fitzhugh Lee, American Consul General at Havana. The Red Cross offered its services to the President for this relief work, and the State Department, with the President's approval, proposed to its officers to unite with certain others interested to form a committee to be called "The Central Cuban Relief Committee," for the purpose of collecting and forwarding supplies to the Consul General, "he having been placed by the President in sole charge of the receipt and distribution of the relief in the island." Later the American Red Cross acted as distributing agent at Havana, but with the breaking out of hostilities with Spain it withdrew. The Cuban Relief Committee then chartered for the Red Cross the "State of Texas" for the transportation of further relief to aid the reconcentrados.

This ship was placed under the orders of the commander-in-chief of the naval forces, and in Mr. Long's the Secretary of the Navy, letter of instructions handed Miss Barton to deliver to Admiral Sampson he was cautioned to see "that none of these supplies shall come into the possession of the Spanish army, as this would result in defeating the purpose for which the blockade has been established." It was thus made impossible to land the supplies until our forces were in control of a portion of Cuba, and eventually they were utilized for the benefit of the sick and wounded soldiers of our army at El Caney and Siboney, the New York Committee refunding their value to the Cuban Relief Committee.

In the meantime the American National Red Cross Relief Committee was organized in New York City, with various auxiliaries in the eastern part of the country and at Pittsburgh. This committee acted practically independently of the National Association, raised, administered and accounted for its own funds. It had sub-committees on nurses, on ice plants, on cots, on ambulances, and on employment for soldiers' wives. Most excellent and devoted service was given by these committees, but the work was carried on under many difficulties because there existed at Washington no capable central organization in close and sympathetic understanding with the Government officials. Nurses were needed, but it required a visit to the Capital, interviews with the President, special conferences with War Department officers, and many explanations before they were accepted. Among the early nurses gathered together from those who offered their services on the West Coast there were some sent to the Philippines who proved so objectionable that later Mr. Taft, when Governor of the islands, was compelled to ask for their recall.

To carry supplies to Cuba a yacht was purchased, renamed the "Red Cross," and loaded with stores, but storms injured her machinery and drove her back to Key West, where her suplies had to be re-shipped by transport. Eleven ambulances were bought, but only five were landed from the ship on which they were sent. Misunderstandings with the Government, and lack of capacity to handle the situation on the part of the Red Cross at Washington prevented these ambulances reaching Santiago, where Government surgeons stated they would have been of incalculable value, as the lack of transportation facilities resulted in the death of many of the wounded.

In the meantime, Philadelphia, which, because the Red Cross officers at Johnstown would make no report of receipts and expenditures, declined to have further association with the society, started a National Relief Commission, which refused to affiliate with the New

York Red Cross Relief Commission. In New York still another commission was organized, called "The Woman's National War Relief Association." An invitation to become auxiliary to the Red Cross was likewise declined by this association "upon the ground of preference for work entirely national in character, which should be by Americans, for Americans, with the treasury so regulated that, war ended, every dollar should be for Americans still to the ultimate dollar received."

In Boston other committees were organized for the chartering and fitting out of a hospital ship. In Minnesota and on the Pacific Coast Red Cross Associations sprang into existence, and like that of New York, acted independently in the collection and administration of funds and supplies. Cleveland had its War Emergency Relief Board, but what was done in Chicago, St. Louis and scores of other cities it is difficult to discover, as no reports are to be found in the Congressional Library.

As a result of this lack of centralization and of co-operation and in spite of most devoted and self-sacrificing work on the part of many individuals, this rich country failed to give the aid it should have given to our sick and wounded men. Dr. O'Reilly, later surgeon general, used to tell with comical pathos of the inviting boxes that reached his hospital and were opened with eager hands, in hopes of finding desperately needed hospital garments and linen, only to discover that they were filled to overflowing with abdominal bands. Colonel William Cary Sanger felt the tragedy of all this unorganized work while scores of his men lay ill with burning fever and had nothing to wear but their heavy uniforms. In some cases tons of ice were side-tracked and melted away, while the fever-stricken soldiers moaned for ice water or other cooling drinks. The story of the suffering on the first transport that brought the wounded north, because of lack of sufficient surgeons and nurses and supplies, filled the papers with indignant criticism; quite value-less, though, to undo what these men had undergone. At Camp Wickoff the sick when first landed slept on the ground, without a board beneath them or a shelter above them.

Facts like these are not recalled to reflect upon the committees or to minimize the splendid work they accomplished. Money, supplies and thousands eager to aid there were on the one hand, and need and suffering on the other; but no well organized Red Cross to bring the two together. Such conditions emphasize the necessity, if they are not to be repeated time and time again, of a permanent organization which in time of peace has prepared for war. The harassed officials of the War Department in the hurry and excitement following the outbreak of hostilities cannot devote their time to conferences with representatives of innumerable inexperienced volunteer aid committees, no matter how eager, patriotic and helpful they may prove Any other way of carrying on war relief save by a well organized and prepared Red Cross will prove equally unfortunate and will reflect seriously upon the practical common sense and business-like ability of the American people.

CHAPTER VI

REASONS FOR REORGANIZATION. A NATIONAL SOCIETY. WHAT IS THE AMERICAN RED CROSS? DANGER IN OUR CHARACTERISTICS.

THE time was fast approaching when it was to become evident that a reorganization of the American Red Cross was necessary.

After its first field of relief work in the Ohio and Mississippi floods surprise was expressed that no statement as to the receipts and expenditures was made public. When the Pennsylvania State Committee for relief at Johnstown prepared a general report a request was made of the President of the Red Cross for an account of its receipts and expenditures, which was refused as contrary to the policies of the organization, and the only information given was to the effect that $39,000 had been received and expended, leaving no balance. This attitude on the part of the Red Cross officers alienated the people of Philadelphia, who proceeded to organize and maintain from then on their own permanent association for relief after disasters.

At the time of the Russian famine in 1892, when an appeal signed by Chief Justice Fuller and Cardinal Gibbons asked that contributions be sent to the Red Cross, no financial report was made. The Armenian Relief Committee, which raised funds for its relief work, obtained after delay a report of receipts and expenditures which it did not regard as satisfactory. In the many reports of the Cuban and Spanish War relief work there are on file the various committee treasurers' financial statements, but no statement of the funds received by the president of the Red Cross, who was also its treasurer.

At the outbreak of the war the International Red

Cross Committee of Geneva, according to its usual custom, wrote to both the Spanish and the American Red Cross, asking if the assistance of the societies of neutral countries was desired. On the receipt of replies it issued a circular saying that the Spanish Red Cross had declined, unless necessary later, but that "on the contrary," the American Red Cross would gratefully receive assistance, and all contributions were to be sent to Miss Clara Barton, president. As no financial report was made by the national headquarters, we do not know what countries responded to the appeal, which hardly represented the public sentiment of the American people in connection with a war of so short duration and involving comparatively such a small expenditure. From other sources, it is learned that the Red Cross Societies of France, Germany, Austria and Portugal sent financial aid. The Russian Red Cross, in reply to this appeal, offered a contribution through our State Department, which our Government courteously declined to accept.

In June, 1900, the American Red Cross was re-incorporated by Act of Congress and the charter required that a financial statement should be made annually, though there was no provision for an official audit. After the Galveston disaster dissensions arose over certain expenditures that were not approved by all of the members of the Executive Board. A new Executive Committee was elected the following year, but again serious differences arose, leading in 1903 to an actual cleavage in the small membership. The following year Mr. Richard Olney, at the annual meeting, was requested to appoint a committee to investigate conditions. This committee consisted of Senator Redfield Proctor, chairman; Honorable William Alden Smith, then in the House of Representatives; and General Fred C. Ainsworth, adjutant general of the army. The "Remonstrants," as those were called who disapproved of the methods of the old organization, laid certain facts before this committee, which decided to have a Treasury expert audit the books of the Society. With the exception of the financial statement already referred to, he found no records save one of the Russian famine, which showed some forty-five thousand dollars received, but not more than fifteen thousand expended. Evidence was given before the committee showing that certain moneys contributed for this famine relief were deposited in western banks and a portion expended in the purchase and improvement of a farm, later called the "Red Cross Park," and which, in an officially printed circular of the Red Cross, was announced as a gift to the organization. The year following the Johnstown disaster, 1890, nearly thirty thousand dollars' worth of land was purchased in Washington, the titles of which stood in the personal name of the president of the association. At the time that certain portions of this land were purchased a balance of Red Cross funds for Johnstown relief that had been sent directly to a Washington bank was drawn upon for the amount paid. This particular land had been sold, a certain amount being paid down and the rest to be paid in installments. These latter payments the Red Cross eventually secured.

Mr. Spencer Trask, who was chairman of the executive committee of the National Armenian Relief Committee, in a deposition that was laid before Senator Proctor's committee, testified to the unsatisfactory organization of the Red Cross, the indisposition of its then managers to undertake any work without burdensome guarantees, and to the serious lack of business management.

There was also laid before the committee on investigation a letter sent by Bishop Potter and other prominent men and women who from past experience with the Red Cross were convinced of the necessity of a reorganization:

"The undersigned persons who, in times of previous activities, and during the war with Spain, have been associated with the American National Red Cross, desire to state that in their judgment the financial arrangements of this association need reorganization in order to merit the confidence of the American public.

"They most heartily endorse the efforts now being made by some of the prominent members of the Red Cross in Washington to thoroughly reorganize the association, and to provide for a careful and business-like administration of its finances. (Signed) Henry C. Potter, Spencer Trask, Robert C. Ogden, Cleveland H. Dodge, Helen Fidelia Draper (Mrs. W. K. Draper), Howard Townsend, Elizabeth Mills Reid (Mrs. Whitelaw Reid), Sam Wolverton, F. Augs. Schermerhorn, A. S. Solomons, Gustaf H. Schwab, Olivia M. Cutting (Mrs. Bayard Cutting)."

The committee held only three meetings when the matter was settled by Miss Barton's resignation and the calling of a special Red Cross meeting, at which such officers as the "Remonstrants" approved were elected.

The following autumn the old association was dissolved and a new corporation created by Act of Congress, signed by President Roosevelt January 5, 1905. The new charter provided that all accounts should be audited by the War Department and an annual report submitted to Congress by the Secretary of War. For the first time the American Red Cross became truly national in its scope and standing

In each country its respective Red Cross Society is organized to suit local conditions, but the governing body of each is always entitled the Central Committee. Upon that of the American Red Cross the President of the United States appoints the chairman and representatives of the Department of State, Treasury, War, Justice and Navy. The incorporators—a self-perpetuating body—elect six, and the delegates of boards, chapters and affiliated bodies elect six. This committee of eighteen selects an executive committee of seven from among its own members.

At the first annual meeting William Howard Taft, then Secretary of War, was elected president, and this office he continued to occupy by annual elections after he became President of the United States. In March, 1913, on retiring from the presidency he retired as president of the Red Cross, giving his reason in his letter of resignation:

"I was elected president of the Red Cross in December to succeed myself. I had been president for four years during my incumbency as President of the United States. The cause which the Red Cross promotes is greatly aided, I think, by having the President of the United States at its head, and I do not think that it embarrasses the incumbent of the office of President of the nation to accept the office of the head of the Red Cross. It gives it a standing abroad where its reputation is most useful in enabling it to carry out its high purposes. I accepted the last election with the understanding that when I ceased to be President of the United States I would resign the office, with the hope that President Wilson might accept it and use the union of the two offices in the same way that I have attempted to use it, for the benefit of the public of the United States and of the world at large.

"Wherefore, I hereby resign my position as president of the Red Cross, to take effect upon the acceptance of the same by the central committee of the Red Cross."

Speaking of Mr. Taft's resignation and his aid to the Red Cross the magazine published by the society said at the time:

"Only those who endured the strain of the early days of reorganization, who bore the burden of the many complex problems of development, who battled against discouragement and disappointments, can comprehend what the constant interest, the helpful, tireless counsel and the sympathetic inspiration of Mr. Taft's eight years' presidency meant to the Red Cross. He built foundations that were true and strong like the man himself, not counting the structure raised upon them for the credit of the man but for the service of his fellow-man.

"Our people and those in foreign lands who have benefited because of the American Red Cross owe to Mr. Taft a debt of gratitude for all that he so quietly, so modestly did to build up its present state of efficiency and to obtain its position in public confidence."

The Central Committee, which has the power of filling vacancies in the interim between the annual meetings, asked President Wilson to accept the presidency, a request to which he promptly acceded, writing, "I have much pleasure in accepting the office of president of the American Red Cross. I warmly appreciate the action of the Central Committee." President Wilson has, like President Taft, occupied the position of active president, for the position is not an honorary one as is generally supposed. Though the chairman of the Central Committee is the active executive officer, the president presides at part of the annual meeting, issues its important public appeals in war or disaster, and appoints the members of various boards.

Organization is a dry subject, but there can be no clear comprehension of the Red Cross without some knowledge of its construction and its methods. Of primary importance is the fact that it is not a private association created by certain persons for benevolent purposes, but that it is the official volunteer aid department of the United States, so recognized by its own Government and by all of the signatory powers of the treaty of Geneva.

The Central Committee forms a sort of cabinet, under it coming three important boards whose chairmen and vice-chairmen are members of the committee. These boards are the War, National and International Relief Boards, to each of which have been assigned special duties in connection with its particular department of relief operations. Policies are established by these boards in their respective fields and recommendations for appropriations made to the Central or Executive Committee, which reserves to itself the right to approve recommendations and appropriate funds.

The chairman and vice-chairman of the War Relief Board are the surgeon generals of the Army and Navy. Those of the National Relief Board are members of the committee particularly familiar with this department of its duties, and those of the International Relief Board are representatives of the State Department and the navy, as in foreign relief co-operation with the Navy is often desirable.

Under these boards are various sub-committees, the medical bureau, the first aid department, the nursing service, town and country nursing, and the Christmas seal. State boards, consisting of from three to ten prominent persons, constitute permanent emergency finance committees in each State, the governor of the State being the chairman.

Besides the State boards, there are local organizations which are called chapters, each with its own officers and members. The special duties of the chapters are to collect funds and supplies on an appeal from headquarters or from the governor of their respective State, and, in case of local disasters, to co-operate with the institutional member in immediate relief measures.

To provide a force of trained assistants the Red Cross has made a number of the most efficient charity organizations institutional members, thereby obtaining an experienced personnel for service in time of disaster relief.

The society has affiliated with it certain other organizations, such as the American Nurses' Association and the

Needlework Guild, which are available for special assistance. The American Medical Association has appointed a Red Cross Committee to assist the medical bureau of the society.

The chairman of the Central Committee is the active executive officer of the Red Cross. It has besides the usual officers a general manager and a national director. The former has particular charge of the office and business part of its work, and in the absence or disability of the chairman becomes acting chairman. The national director has immediate control of all disaster relief operations within the United States under the supervision of the National Relief Board. He has the organization and control of State boards and chapters, and the four assistant directors stationed in the Atlantic, Central, Mountain and Pacific divisions work under his instructions.

A bureau of information, under a bureau chief, keeps in close touch with the work of the various branches of the Red Cross, issues a monthly magazine, supplies information to inquirers, and advises the public generally of the nature and progress of Red Cross activities.

This in brief is the organization structure of the American Red Cross. It is the outcome of careful study of foreign Red Cross organizations and home conditions, and it possesses the healthy power of future growth and development.

We Americans are considered a curious combination of practical, business-like common sense and strongly developed sentiment. We possess remarkable powers of organization and initiative, but we are too much given to over-confidence in such powers. We are apt to become opportunists, believing that we can be found equal to any emergency upon demand and that preparation for something that has not yet occurred is a waste of time and energy. In this we reveal our lack of maturity and show neither wisdom nor common sense. We are not content to build a fire-engine after a fire has begun nor to depend upon a hastily organized fire brigade, for we have been taught by bitter experience the danger and the cost. Neither do we call in a layman to cure our bodily ills or settle our legal difficulties, and yet we are inclined, in such matters as organization to meet emergencies, to believe that the length of our purse will make up for want of preparation and enthusiasm take the place of training and experience. It is a happy-go-lucky way of living that in the end causes not only waste and inefficiency but which may either leave thousands in need of aid, suffering because of lack of method, or demoralized by misapplied generosity.

Great wars are not likely to occur more than once in a generation in any one country, and the experience gained at such a time, unless preserved in the methods and policies of a permanent organization, become lost for future benefit. Similar disasters rarely afflict the same community within many decades, and those trained at the cost of local misfortune are seldom available for service at a remote distance. Again there is apparent the need of a permanent organization which can immediately provide experts in relief methods to aid and direct communities suffering from some sudden great calamity.

Let us have the wisdom to recognize the danger of these certain national characteristics and overcome them by the virtue of our practical common sense.

CHAPTER VII

HOW IN PEACE WE PREPARE FOR WAR. HUMAN SACRIFICES ON THE ALTAR OF INDUSTRY. TOLLS THAT NEPTUNE TAKES. FIELD COLUMNS AND WAR ORDERS. NEWS FROM THE FRONT.

THE geographical situation of the United States of America has been its greatest safeguard against war, but, in spite of our almost immune condition, during the last century we were involved in four different wars, and since the beginning of the twentieth century more than once war clouds have gathered on the horizon. We cannot witness this present world-wide conflict without realizing that no millenium is yet at hand and that behind the curtain that fate holds closed before our future there may lie grim battlefields with all their horrors of desolation, suffering and death.

To attempt, however, to maintain a Red Cross in this country to be prepared for war only would be futile. In fact, even in the most military of nations peace activities are necessary to keep up public interest and the society's efficiency. The good right arm if tied for years inactive to the side will prove utterly useless in the end when it is called upon for work.

How then in America can we maintain an efficient Red Cross, ready "to furnish volunteer aid to the sick and wounded of armies in time of war in accordance with the spirit and conditions of the conference of Geneva?" There occur from time to time great calamities requiring relief operations that are quite akin to war relief, and an organization prepared to deal with war would be best fitted to deal with disasters. Therefore, at such a time the use of the Red Cross proves of double value. On the one hand, it provides trained and experienced assistance, and, on the other, it exercises the society in functions that develop its abilities and render it fit to cope with the demands of military conflicts.

It is most difficult for the American people to comprehend war conditions and regulations. Certain remarkable privileges are granted to the army and navy medical service and to "the volunteer aid societies duly recognized and authorized by their respective governments," under the treaty of Geneva. Each signatory power, therefore, becomes responsible for its volunteer aid society and the personnel of the same.

For this reason it is essential that there exist at all times a permanent organization, under such government supervision as will insure, in the event of war, its fulfilling international obligations. For this reason the President of the United States, through the medium of the Department of State, issued a special proclamation in August, 1911, calling attention to the status of the American Red Cross:

"Now, therefore, I, William H. Taft, President of the United States, by virtue of the authority in me vested, do hereby declare and proclaim—

"That the American National Red Cross is the only volunteer society now authorized by this Government to render aid to its land and naval forces in time of war.

"That any other society desiring to render similar assistance can do so only through the American National Red Cross."

The rest of the proclamation is devoted to specific regulations regarding the Red Cross relationship to the Army and Navy Departments.

In this public order there is no intention of monopolizing war relief, but to bring it under proper regulation and control. In case of war the Government does not permit individual companies or regiments to be organized to assist in the fighting nor is privateering allowed at sea. Responsibility under a national treaty makes it obligatory on the part of the Government to see that its volunteer relief operations are in the hands of an organization over which it has supervision and in whose training and reliability it can repose absolute confidence.

In time of war volunteer aid divides itself mainly into two classes, personnel and supplies. The United States Army has a medical reserve corps, but in a war of any magnitude its numbers could not meet the demands. At such a time of sudden stress, thousands of surgeons and physicians volunteer whose character, training and experience are not up to the standard that should be maintained in this humanitarian service. Too often have the sick and wounded soldiers, helpless in themselves, been left to the inadequate care of such men. To obviate a repetition of these conditions and to supplement the Army Reserve Corps the medical bureau of the Red Cross, in co-operation with the Red Cross County Committees of the American Medical Association, is prepared to furnish a personnel for whose fitness and standing after careful investigation it is ready to vouch. The medical service is available for relief when serious disasters occur, but this field of activity is not frequent enough to warrant supporting a standing organization. It should be made of use in the daily life of the country, and this is what the Red Cross does.

About ninety thousand fatal accidents occur annually in the United States. To these may be added at a conservative estimate a half million which result in disability for work, and some two million which cause temporary incapacity. Statistics show that some sixty-six per cent. of these accidents are due to negligence and thirty-four per cent. to inevitable risk. Such appalling records appear to the Red Cross as evidence of nothing less than a public calamity of the gravest nature. We are constantly congratulating ourselves on the progress science is making against disease. Typhoid fever does not compare with accidents as a cause of death, yet by scientific means it is steadily decreasing while accidents are constantly increasing. The prevention of accidents and of the unfortunate results of accidents is just as important as the prevention of disease. How can this be brought about? By the education of the public, by the use of safety devices and by instructions in accident prevention and first aid. This work appeals to the employer of labor, both from the humane and the economic point of view. In the first issue of the Red Cross text-book on first aid, "dedicated to the industrial army of the United States of America," the late Surgeon General O'Reilly in the preface said that he knew of no other book on this subject that gave so much thought to teaching the prevention of accidents, "as the beneficent mission of the Red Cross, like that of the good physician in disease, should be to go deeply into the causes which are responsible for the physical sufferings of humanity rather than to resort solely to palliative measures."

The best work along these lines of accident prevention and first aid instructions has been done among the miners. Winter's cold is driven from our homes, our offices, our schools and churches; hither and thither over the country huge engines are constantly dragging trains loaded with multitudes of passengers and thousands of tons of merchandise and supplies; innumerable great machines are whirring throughout the land in the turmoil of its industrial life,— all these depending upon the agency of coal. What demands on human life does this black giant make? Slain annually on the altar of this industrial Moloch are 3260 miners, and 9000 more lie maimed and crippled on the altar steps. In 1907 there was one death for every 144,000 tons of coal mined. Five years later there were 244,000 tons of coal mined for one human sacrifice, showing that progress had been made.

Into this field of daily usefulness went the Red Cross to teach the lessons of prevention and first aid. The

Government Bureau of Mines gave enthusiastic co-operation in every way; Dr. Holmes, its director, became a member of the first aid committee. To mining companies and miners it appealed alike. Major Charles Lynch, the army medical officer detailed to be the chief of the Red Cross Medical Bureau, entered into the work with the conviction that no greater service could be rendered to humanity than this work for the men of our industrial world. He prepared a special first-aid textbook for miners which has been translated into Slovack, Polack, Lithuanian and Italian. Classes of volunteers were formed among the miners, who, living amidst constant danger, were keenly alive to the value of such instructions. When a sudden accident occurs at the distant end of a long gallery a mile or more from the shaft his comrades' knowledge of first aid may mean life or death to the injured man. In the miners' text-book special emphasis is laid upon prevention, and many a wise precaution is given to firemen, miner, laborer, runner, driver, door-boy, footman or cager. Terse sentences there are that to the layman's mind speak in riddles but are clear to the miner. "Don't put sulphur and gas squids into the same place." "Don't allow driver to make flying switches." A score of pictures show the wrong way of doing things and their dangerous or fatal results. To encourage the men, competitions between teams from different mines are held after a preliminary contest has taken place to select the best team from each company. On a race-track or a ball park or in some open field near the mines these competitions generally take place. Thousands of spectators gather round or fill the stands of the park or track. There are the miners' wives, with the children clinging to their skirts and the babies in their arms. How often has fear clutched their hearts when the word goes out of an accident at the mines. There are hundreds of the miners, each ready to cheer for the team of his own company as enthusiastically as the fans of the baseball world, the keenness of their interest teaching them, unconsciously as they watch, many a helpful lesson. Those that come from distant States are accompanied by mine officials, as eager for the success of their teams as the men themselves. An atmosphere of tragedy is in the air. Onto the field in a long procession march the men from a dozen different States and a score of different mines. Every man is in his miner's clothes, and many a group have their little lamps lighted in their caps. Each team consists of four or five miners, with another for a subject. A box of first aid supplies is carried by one; crowbars, pieces of board and other objects for improvised splints by others. The judges, frequently army surgeons, are ready, score cards in hand, for each feature in first aid receives so many marks to its credit, according to the way it is done. There they stand, those groups of earnest faced miners. Long hours have they given to their training, and whether they win or lose the prize they have won a better thing—the knowledge of how to save a fellow-man's life. To the captain of each team is handed a sealed envelope containing a paper giving the nature of the first aid accident they are to treat. At a signal this is opened while one of the judges reads the problem aloud. It is given as though applicable to an actual accident. Some require one or two men to undertake the first aid, and others the entire team.

"Full team. After a fall of roof and gas explosion the miner has suffered the following: A compound fracture of right thigh, compound fracture of left arm, with bleeding in jets, bright red in color, and is severely burned about the face and arms. Five men to dress and carry over steam pipe and track, under trolley wire, up breaker steps, over prop pile, over loaded mine car and place in ambulance. Time allowed, fifteen minutes."

Often the competition ends with a mine accident depicted in a realistic and dramatic way. At a contest between Wilkes-Barre and Scranton a few years ago the facsimile of a mine was built above ground. The miners were seen busily at work with their pickaxes; a blinding flash of light and an explosion, followed by the falling roof; the groaning of the burned and injured men. Suddenly arose the pathetic cry of a Welch miner, who came to their assistance, "Come quick, there's a man hurted." A cry that goes to the heart of the Red Cross and to which it seeks to respond, that cry for the conservation of human life.

With the work progressing well among the miners, the Red Cross turned its attention to the needs of the railroad men. During the Civil War 110,070 were killed in the Federal Army and 275,175 wounded. From 1888 to 1907 153,366 were killed by the railroads, and 1,042,486 injured. During 1913 one railroad employee was killed every two hours and forty-one minutes, and every four minutes one was injured.

With statistics such as these there can be no doubt of the need of safety and first aid instructions among railroad employees. To carry on this work the Red Cross has two special cars donated by the Pullman Company. On each car there is a doctor who has been trained to understand railroad conditions and accidents, to instruct the men in a simple and non-technical manner and to drill them to do the work themselves, using often improvised splints and stretchers. The cars are equipped with first aid material for teaching, and the main body forms a small lecture room, which, however, is rarely large enough for the size of the audience. The railroads carry the cars free, and special arrangements are made to stop at points where there are a large number of employees. The doctors on the cars have time to do little more than start classes whose instructions are continued by the railroad or other doctors. Interest is aroused by a mass meeting, with music, and addresses from the superintendent and others on safety, at the end of which the doctor gives a demonstration of first aid for accidents with which the men are familiar. Quick to grasp its importance, they murmur to their neighbors, "What a difference it would have made to Jack if he had been carried that way. I guess he wouldn't have lost his leg." Or, "If I had known that I might have saved poor Bill's life."

These cars have traveled over many thousands of miles, and many thousands of employees have been trained and drilled, but as yet only a beginning has been made in the way of competitions among railroad men. The interest, however, will grow, as it has among miners, until such contests are held frequently between picked teams representing important railroads. For all such contests the Red Cross is ready to give its service and to provide bronze medals for the winning teams.

Unfortunately the vital statistics of our country are as yet far from perfect, and no data concerning accidents in the lumber industry can be obtained. There are some 800,000 men engaged in this field of industry. If the statistics of the State of Washington hold good throughout the country, 1,920 men are killed, 8,256 permanently partially disabled, and over 70,000 suffer from serious temporary injuries annually. There is almost no labor utilized in the lumber industries that has not some danger involved in it. The sharp edge of the axe, the jagged teeth of the saw in a moment may cause a wound where unchecked hemorrhage will result in certain death. Physicians have signed many a death certificate of men who bled to death from slight injuries and whose lives might have been saved by some knowledge of first aid. The application of cobwebs or some such traditional remedy or the use of soiled rags often produce infection with crippling or fatal results. There lurks danger in the falling tree, in the handling of logs at the skidway or the loading of the trains. The hardships to which the log drivers are exposed and the great personal danger in the excitement of freeing jammed logs when a single mis-step may mean the crushing out of life or drowning in the waters below, are familiar from the graphic descriptions of the story teller's pen. Nor does the danger end with the logging, for the sawmills, with their powerful, sharpedged machinery, add their quota to the number of yearly accidents. One who knows well the lumber man's life, wrote: "Logging is a hazardous life at the very best, and calls for strong, dare-devil men, men who are willing to take chances. Danger is always present, and men become so used to it that they get careless. This, however, is no excuse for needless loss of life or limb." He commends "the benefit of co-operative effort in conserving human life and in protecting the bread winners, upon whom depend the life and happiness of so large a population."

Into these lumber camps the Red Cross is pushing its way that it may help to conserve the lives of the lumber-jacks of the country.

There is probably no calling that so constantly comes in contact with accidents as that of the policeman. No sooner does the crowd begin to collect about the victim of an accident in the street than the blue-coated officer puts in an appearance and takes charge of the situation. His own position is a hazardous one and not without its personal danger; so both for the public and his own benefit the policeman should be trained in first aid.

The firemen are also in frequent danger and in frequent touch with accidents. In his text-book for policemen and firemen Major Lynch says: "Moreover, it has always been my feeling that if our Red Cross in its object of reducing human suffering could be of any service in this direction to our local guardians of law and order and to our protectors from the danger of fire, it was specially obligated to do so."

After studying such instructions in Europe, Major Lynch wrote to all the police and fire departments of our larger cities, and received such universal commendation that the special textbook was prepared. Instructions have been given in certain of our cities, but such knowledge should be made a necessary qualification for enrollment in both of these important public services. Only two hours after receiving one of these lessons two police officers discovered a man, who in a serious accident, had cut a large blood vessel. Sending someone to summon a hospital ambulance, they applied their recently acquired knowledge to stopping the bleeding. The man recovered, but had this first aid not been rendered the doctor, when he arrived, would have found his help too late. It is almost extraordinary how promptly what has been taught is often put into practice. At Oswego, New York, the chief of the fire department wrote Dr. Shields, one of the first aid doctors: "The instructions received by my men at your interesting lecture on March 30th were the means of restoring back to life of two of our firemen who were overcome by dense smoke the day following your lecture. My men and myself cannot express too strongly our appreciation of the help you gave us. You are doing a great and noble work for the country."

Among the companies who realized the value of first aid instructions have been the Western Union and Bell Telephone. On request the Red Cross has given to thousands of their employees courses in first aid particularly adapted to their dangers, including the safest way for the men to work to rescue a person in contact with a live wire and how to resuscitate him.

The seamen are another class of men who need first aid instructions. These men by the hundreds go down into the deep on the whaling and the fishing fleets and on the many freighters that dot the surface of the sea. For weeks, and often months, they are remote from medical aid in case of accident or illness. In England no master or mate is allowed his license unless he has his first aid certificate. Section 118 of the United States Navigation Laws requires: "Every vessel belonging to a citizen of the United States bound from a port in the United States to any foreign port, or being of the burden of seventy-five tons or upward and bound from a port of the Atlantic to a port of the Pacific, or vice versa, shall be provided with a chest of medicine." The rest of the section relates to the use of lime or lemon juice. No mention is made as to the contents of the chest nor whether anyone on board should know how to use the contents.

Classes in first aid for seamen have been held by the Red Cross at the Seamen's Institute in New York, and at San Francisco. These rovers of the world are not often long enough in port for many consecutive lessons, but by making each lesson as complete in itself as possible and by giving them to the intelligent masters and mates much good may be accomplished.

Instructions for seamen include something more than those in first aid. An effort is made to impart a little knowledge as to the treatment of illness. When sickness develops many days away from port much can be done by even elementary knowledge. Familiar among sailors is the story of the captain who explained that he had a book which described different symptoms giving a number for the bottle of the remedy suitable to each case. The symptoms in a particular case called for number nine, but as this bottle was empty the captain took a mixture of numbers four and five, with the resultant decease of the patient.

Neptune from his caverns under the sea demands his toll of human life, and many a beautiful lake nestling among the wooded hills holds the story of some tragic fate. Between six and seven thousand lives, including suicides, are lost every year in the waters of the United States. When some great vessel sinks with its freight of human lives the world shudders with horror over the catastrophe, but it thinks little of the numberless drownings that occur, one by one, day after day, aggregating many fold more than those sacrificed in the steamer's loss. Under the First Aid Department a life-saving branch has been organized, and along our docks in seacoast, lake and river cities an instructor has been occupied in organizing life-saving corps among men and boys, teaching them to swim, to rescue a drowning person and to resuscitate him. When a swimmer can tow a person of his own weight ten yards, knows how to release himself when grasped by a frightened victim, and can pass various other tests, a medal is awarded him. Large numbers of dock hands, sailors, yachtsmen, and boys have joined these classes, which have already proved their practical value in the saving of life. The Red Cross has received active co-operation in all this first aid work from the Young Men's Christian Association, which has organized and carried on instructions among large numbers of men. A joint certificate is issued to those who pass the examinations.

What practical connection there is between this first aid instruction and preparation for war relief may be at first difficult to understand, until a study is made of the war department circular outlining the duties and regulations of the American Red Cross in time of war. "The American National Red Cross having been authorized by the act of Congress to render aid to the land and naval forces in time of actual or threatened war, the following regulations governing the status, organization and operations of this society when employed with the land forces, having received the approval of the president, are published for the information and guidance of all concerned:" These regulations are embodied in twenty different sections. Red Cross units constitute part of the sanitary service of the Army. The personnel reporting for active duty become subject to military laws and will receive the brassard and a certificate of identity. The personnel will be employed in base hospitals, on hospital trains and ships and along lines of communication. Independent hospitals and organizations are not to be established except under the direction of medical officers of the Army. The personnel that may be required consists of physicians, surgeons, dentists, pharmacists, nurses, clerks, cooks, hospital orderlies, litter bearers, drivers and laborers. These will be formed into field, hospital, and supply columns. A field column consists of a director and four assistant directors, who must be surgeons or physicians, and eighty-four men, a certain number of whom are section chiefs. The training of these field columns includes instructions in first aid, elementary hygiene and hospital corps drill. The personnel must be familiar with appliances for transporting sick and wounded, such as litters and ambulances, with the fitting up of trains and ships for patients and other similar duties. Experience has shown the difficulty of securing upon the outbreak of war men fitted for the duties devolving upon the hospital corps and litter bearers. Those that the Red Cross has trained in first aid will provide most valuable material upon which to draw for these hospital columns. Such men, with surgeons as medical directors and medical students as chiefs, can in a comparatively short time be drilled into efficient field columns. Hence, the value of this department of the Red Cross for war preparations. Members of these columns wear a uniform of forest green that has been approved by the War Department and which the surgeons, doctors and sanitary inspectors whom the Red Cross has sent to Europe have worn.

Hospital columns consist of three sections: a director, three assistant directors, and fifty-one nurses. These will be utilized in base hospitals, upon hospital trains and ships.

The extension of first aid instructions led to the demand for first aid supplies. To meet this situation and also to prepare a nucleus for the all-important department in charge of material gifts in time of war, a supply division, under an experienced pharmacist, has been organized. From this division boxes with contents suitable to various accidents of household, school, factory, railroad and mines, as well as those for the life-saving corps, are obtained.

In case of war a number of collecting stations will be established in different parts of the country upon which the large distributing warehouses will make requisitions for the kind and character of supplies used in the sanitary service.

There appears to be no limit to the sufferings war inflicts, and perhaps there are none harder to bear than the agony and suspense over the fate of some loved one in the fighting line. To lighten this pathetic burden, to bring the news from the front, the Red Cross accepts a still further duty. It is placed in charge of information by the War Department regulations. The Information Bureau of the Society that keeps the public informed of Red Cross activities by means of the press and the monthly magazines will in war immediately expand into a very active department, its sections composed of clerks, stenographers and typewriters under directors will be stationed at army headquarters in the field to forward information concerning the sick and wounded, the prisoners and dead to relatives and friends. The inquiry of the poor distracted mother about her wounded son that the busy colonel of his regiment has no time to answer will not remain unheeded. The soldier too ill to write himself may by this aid send a letter of comfort from his hospital bed, and the final story of some brave life, often so longed for by the aching hearts at home, will not be lost.

CHAPTER VIII

NURSING IN THE CIVIL WAR. THE FIRST AMERICAN TRAINING SCHOOL. THE RED CROSS NURSING SERVICE. THE SENTIMENTAL AMATEUR. LOVE OF ADVENTURE VERSUS HUMANITY AND PATRIOTISM. WHAT THE LAY WOMAN CAN DO. THE TRUE NURSE AND HER QUALIFICATIONS. ORGANIZATION AND MOBILIZATION. USE AND NUMBER IN FIRE, FLOOD AND PESTILENCE.

IN order to carry out the provisions for mitigating the sufferings of the sick and wounded the committee that drafted the treaty of Geneva passed resolutions recommending that the duties of the permanent committees for war relief should include the training and instruction of volunteer nurses to co-operate with the military medical authorities for active service. The ages have taught the need for the Red Cross nurse, and every Red Cross Society recognizes this necessity. At the time of the drafting of the treaty of Geneva trained nursing as a profession was practically unknown. At Kaiserswerth, in Germany, where Florence Nightingale had studied, it was a part of the simple religious training of the deaconesses. Miss Nightingale, on her return to England from the Crimea devoted herself to the inauguration of a training school to provide regular professional training for nurses for the sick.

During our Civil War many of the male nurses were thoroughly incompetent, and some of them brutal and indifferent. Most of the women, on the contrary, were kindly and sympathetic, many of them, volunteers, devoting their services to the work because of patriotic devotion and love of humanity or because someone of their own was a soldier boy at the front.

The lack of an efficient nursing corps during the Civil War led not only to unnecessary suffering among the wounded, but even to their abuse. Dr. Thomas T. Ellis, who was post surgeon in New York and medical director in Virginia, in his diary published in 1863, gives some interesting information in regard to women nurses. He commends enthusiastically the work of the Sanitary Commission and speaks highly of a number of women connected with it, but of others his condemnation is severe. Dr. Muir, medical inspector-general of the British army, came to America to study the care of the wounded here and spent some time with the troops in Virginia. Because of his experience in the Crimea and East Indies his opinions were entitled to the highest respect. In referring to one of them Dr. Ellis says:

"Dr. Muir made many valuable suggestions, prominent among which he advised the organizing, under a competent head, of the female nurses, who should be selected between the ages of thirty and forty-five. This suggestion, which coincided with the opinions of many of the surgeons, has been since acted on; and Miss Dix, whose name has for many years been identified with the most philanthropic exertions in behalf of suffering humanity has consented to take the supervision and management of that department, which has hitherto been a source of annoyance to all the surgeons of the army. Women from New York and other cities, of doubtful age and reputation, had succeeded in getting employed as nurses, and had abused the privileges of their ill-assumed position to plunder the poor wounded soldiers and embezzle the clothing and luxuries generously contributed by individuals and the Sanitary Commission. I can recall to mind more than one of these female harpies, who, under the garb of religion and philanthropy, have robbed the dying sufferer of his hard-earned pay, sacredly hoarded and intended for his suffering family. Some of these miserable counterfeits of noble women have been detected and exposed; but others, I regret to say, have carried on their nefarious practice with such artful and methodical secrecy, as to elude detection.''

The simple story told in the letters home of ''The Lady Nurse in Ward E'' gives an accurate description of the work then expected of a nurse. She administered the medicine as directed by the doctor, aided the orderlies in preparing meals, fed the more helpless patients, wrote their letters, read aloud, sang to them and amused them in other ways with games and puzzles. When a large number of wounded arrived the card of each one was made out and hung at the head of his bed. His clothes were rolled into a parcel and labeled ''For the knapsack room,'' and an account entered in the ward master's book. There can be no doubt of the valuable aid given by these kindly women, and experience in time must have provided certain training that added to their efficiency, but the service that is to-day expected of the professional nurse was then unheard of. The duties in the operating room, the careful keeping of the charts that convey quickly so much to the hurried doctor, the many means of relieving pain and suffering taught in the hospital training schools were yet to come.

In her delightful ''Recollections of a Happy Life,'' published for private circulation, Mrs. Elizabeth C. Hobson gives a most interesting account of the start of the nurses' training school at Bellevue Hospital, a portion of which, by kind permission, is quoted, as I know of no better story of the origin of this important work in America. Mrs. Hobson was chairman of one of the sub-committees on inspection. Ignorant of the duties expected of her, she asked the aid of one of the young doctors. ''He replied 'Look at the beds and the bedding, the clothing of the patients, their unclean condition, and go into the bathroom and see the state of things there; after a while I will come back into the ward and you follow me without speaking.' I did as he bade me. The condition of the patients and the beds was unspeakable; one nurse slept in the bathroom, and the tub was filled with filthy rubbish. As for the nurse, she was an Irishwoman of a low class, and to her was confided the care of twenty patients, her only assistants being paupers, so-called 'helpers,' women drafted from the workhouse, many of whom had been sent there for intemperance; and those convalescents who could leave their beds. It was Friday, and the dinner of salt fish was brought in a bag to the ward and emptied on to the table; the convalescents helped themselves, and carried to the others their portions on a tin plate with a spoon. While I was watching this, the young doctor returned, and without speaking to him I followed him out of the ward, down a steep staircase, across a yard filled with every kind of rubbish, into a large building which proved to be the laundry. Nauseous steam was rising from great cauldrons filled with filthy clothing, which one old pauper was stirring with a stick. I looked about; hideous masses were piled up all around, but where were the laundresses? There were none, the old man was alone. 'They had gone away,' he said. I asked him what soap he used. 'I haven't had any for quite a while,' he said. 'How long a while?' said I. 'Oh, I should say a matter of several weeks.' In reply to my exclamation of horror, the doctor explained 'that it took the commissioners a good while to supply all the requisitions, meanwhile the hospital had to wait. Now let us cross to the kitchen.' A huge negro cook was ladling out soup into great tin basins which the workhouse women were to take up to the wards, and I learned that these same cauldrons were used for the tea and coffee in the morning. Some pauper women were huddled together in a corner, peeling potatoes, and the whole place reeked with the smell of foul steam and food. I had to escape, it was too dreadful!

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"We learned, among other things, that there were no regular night nurses. A man, called a night watchman, passed through the wards, and if he found a patient very ill or dying he called a young doctor. Occasionally patients, who had been overlooked, were found dead in the morning. Rats scampered over the floors at night. In fact, it seemed hopeless to attempt to cleanse that Augean stable.

"One day, on my way home, I stopped at a bookseller's and ordered Miss Nightingale's works and some treatises on hospital management. These I studied, and with the members of my committee visited the hospital constantly. We had learned a great deal in that first month. Miss Nightingale's papers had taught us what was required and what ought not to exist in a hospital. But oh! how low our standards were, how much we had to learn and act up to; certainly in Bellevue, the only hospital I had ever seen, and which, I was told, was the largest pauper hospital in the city, with its thirty-two wards and over eight hundred patients.

"It will hardly be believed that there was not an antiseptic of any kind in use in the hospital except carbolic acid. The house staff dressed the wounds, going from one patient to another, often carrying infection in spite of the precautions used. Sponges for washing wounds were not cotton, but bits of real sponge, and were used on one patient after another without any disinfection. I could fill pages with anecdotes of suffering and death caused by the carelessness and ignorance of doctors, nurses and public officials, but, thank God! these are things of the past. The world has certainly improved in humanity, intelligent philanthropy and scientific knowledge during the last forty years.

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"And here I must return to that first meeting, in January, when our visiting committee was formed. I did not then know that, a few weeks before that meeting at Miss Schuyler's house, she had been over Bellevue Hospital with Mrs. David Lane and Commissioner

Bowen, and had come away with the strong conviction that only through radical improvements in the nursing service could that hospital be redeemed; and that only through the establishment of a Training School for Nurses could the needed high standard of nursing be attained, and the patients be properly cared for. It was with this in view that the membership of that committee had been selected.

"At the time of which I write, there were no Training Schools for Nurses in this country, the trained nurse was unknown. To have spoken of what was projected when we first visited the hospital would have been most unwise, would most certainly have antagonized the authorities, who had, some of them, never even heard of a Training School for Nurses. 'What is it?' one of them asked later. 'What kind of a thing is a Training School for Nurses?'

"The time had come when my committee was to make its first monthly report to the full committee. How well I remember that day! It so happened that the reports of the other four standing committees were read first, and when I listened to the accounts of the good work which had been done among the sick, the comforts that had been dispensed, the jellies and dainties distributed to the sick and dying, my heart sank within me. I had done none of these things; I had nothing but horrors to relate; and when the moment came to read my report my voice trembled and I could hardly stand. But, strengthened by the whispered encouragement of my two friends who sat beside me, I took courage, and as I proceeded I was conscious of a sympathetic atmosphere, and when I sat down there was a buzz which was almost applause.

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"We had now visited the hospital for three months, and we knew what we wanted. What we wanted was a Training School for Nurses at Bellevue Hospital, formed on the lines of Miss Nightingale's Training School at St. Thomas' Hospital, London. The entire Visiting Committee wanted it; there was not a dissenting voice. This was in April, 1872.

"Then followed a period of suspense. No notice was taken of our application, and the summer was passing. But although we chafed under the delay, it was not time wasted. I had been appointed chairman of the Hospital Committee of the State Charities Aid Association, to which was assigned the duty of preparing a plan for the organization of the school. Of course the first thing to do was to learn exactly how the work of such a training school should be conducted. Dr. Wylie, a member of the Hospital Committee, offered to go to England, at his own expense, and get the practical information we needed, while others studied at home. Dr. Wylie spent three weeks in St. Thomas' Hospital, with every facility placed at his disposal. He put himself in communication with Miss Nightingale, who wrote him a long letter stating the fundamental principles of the management of a training school, and wishing us 'God Speed!' in our work. This letter we have always regarded as the constitution of our school."

After the reluctant consent of the Commission was obtained, plans for the school were drawn up and an appeal to the public was made for funds, which met with a generous response. The school was to be opened the first day of May, 1873, but the first of April arrived and no one had been obtained as the trained superintendent, which Miss Nightingale had said was indispensable. Mrs. Hobson began to despair when a woman in a religious conventional garb called upon her. She proved to be Sister Helen, of the All Saints (Protestant) Sisterhood, which had charge of the nursing of University Hospital, London. She offered her services, and was engaged as superintendent.

"As was promised, we opened the school on the first day of May, 1873, with three wards, and the reformation and purification began. Sister Helen's experience was our salvation, and that summer she fought hard and kept the school alive by her energy and tact, and the respect which her knowledge inspired upon the house staff. By autumn the results began to tell in the care of the patients and in the improved condition of the wards. During the following winter we were asked to take charge of two more wards, and by the end of a year we were able to discharge our monthly nurses and place our best pupils in their places. Applications from pupils commenced to pour in, and, in spite of difficult questions which constantly arose, we felt that success was before us.

"One of our difficulties, in the light of to-day, is amusing. Early in the work we decided that a uniform was necessary, but, to our surprise, great opposition was expressed by the pupils; they objected to a livery. Among our pupils was Miss Euphemia Van Rensselaer, belonging to the distinguished family of that name, who, learning of our dilemma, offered to try to solve it for us. She asked for two days' holiday, and, when she returned to the hospital, she was dressed in a blue-and-white 'seersucker' dress, white apron, collar and cuffs, and a very becoming cap. She was very handsome, and gave an air of distinction to the simple costume. Within a week every nurse had adopted it, and it has been the uniform of Bellevue School ever since. Another instance is typical of Miss Van Rensselaer's character and influence. When we took charge there was not a screen in the hospital, no privacy whatever for sick or dying. Of course we remedied that, but we also discovered that the female patients were taken to the amphitheatre for operations before all the students, unassisted and unprotected by the presence of a nurse. We felt that this could not be allowed from our wards, and I consulted a friendly surgeon, Dr. Crosby. He said he should be delighted to have a nurse attend his patients, but, he added: 'medical students are a rough lot, and they may make it unpleasant for the nurses.' Again Miss Van Rensselaer stepped into the breach. 'I will go with the patient and take Miss B—— with me; I am not afraid.' The day came and I went to the hospital to await the result. I saw the patient carried out, followed by two nurses. It was an anxious moment. To have had those nurses insulted by jeers and howls, and perhaps forced to retire, would have been very serious, and it was quite possible. Nearly an hour passed; finally I heard the students thundering down the stairs. I waited anxiously until I could see Dr. Crosby, and rushed to meet him. His face beaming with smiles, he extended both hands: 'Their presence was a benediction; I never had a more successful operation, and the students were as quiet as if they were in a church!' he exclaimed. Miss Van Rensselaer told me later that the theatre was crowded, and when they entered with the patient there was a faint murmur as if in surprise. It ceased and during the operation the order was absolute. From that day to this, no female patient has been unattended.

"As I have already said, the Bellevue Training School for Nurses, opened May 1, 1873, was the first school of the kind in this country. The New Haven and Boston schools followed closely, being also opened in 1873. Twenty-five years later, in 1898, thirty schools had been established; and to-day (1911) there are 1,100 training schools for nurses in the United States."

It is largely due to the persistent and courageous efforts of these New York women that to-day our American Red Cross has one of the largest and most efficient corps of trained nurses in the world. A further interesting link between this Bellevue Training School and the Red Cross is the fact that the woman to whom the Red Cross owes mainly the remarkable organization of its nursing service, Miss Jane A. Delano, was for some years superintendent of both the Women's and the Men's Schools for Nurses connected with this hospital.

One of the annoyances and amusements of the medical service in time of war is the sentimental young woman who feels herself called upon to nurse the sick and wounded soldiers. Such young women have become almost proverbial both among the doctors and the patients. "I am too tired to be nursed to-day, miss," or, "I don't mind if you do wash my face; the other ladies have already washed it five times to-day and I am getting quite accustomed to it, thank you, ma'am," are familiar comments on amateur nursing. The Red Cross, like the surgeon general's office, receives innumerable offers of this untrained service. This is particularly the case if there seems any danger of war. When there arose some prospect of a military conflict in Mexico one young woman wrote that she was eighteen years old and believed herself qualified to be a nurse. If the Red Cross would confer with the President and the Secretary of State and they advised her going she could obtain parental consent. Another of twenty informed the Red Cross that she had twice nursed a man through typhoid fever and that as he was still alive her qualifications for a nurse were of undoubted character.

Perhaps the most interesting and original offer of such service came on a postcard from one of America's foreign-born daughters. The spirit of adventure seemed strong in this applicant, though she expresses a great patriotic devotion to her adopted country.

"I am inlisted the volunteers of the field hospital service. I feel honored of it as I am foreigner, came only several months ago in this country. I am honored of it as I said, but not quite satisfied, as I feel the strength in me to do greater services for my adopted country. I speak more different languages, I am sharpshooter and do duel with sword and dagger. I am strong and brave-hearted too. I beg you to let me have the chance to prove my love of my adopted country and the bravery of my nation. Let me have the chance to go any danger where no one dare to go. I am willing to sacrifice my body, my soul, my last drop of blood of the country's concern.

"I am engaged to be married, and if I ever will come back saved, I want the flag with Stars and Stripes for my bridal veil, for my pall if I die for it. My fiance is a lieutenant of U. S. N. My brother at the service of the U. S. A., but I want to be more than they are, to do great things to be worthy for the country and my dear one's love. I beg you to stand by me in my project. I promise to be worthy of your patronizing. I am awaiting of answer."

In all of such offers it is difficult to differentiate patriotism and the real love of humanity from the desire for a novel and exciting experience. These young women know little and think less of the hard, self-sacrificing duties of the true nurse. The test of the real sentiment can be made by the offering of work for which they may be really fitted but which occupies them at home, and not at the hospitals.

Yet the lay woman has just as much right to be of service to her country as the trained nurse, if she is willing to undertake what she is capable of doing. There is a great variety of supplies that are as necessary to alleviate the sufferings of the sick and wounded as is the nursing care. Up to the hospital doors rumble the ambulances. Out of them are tenderly lifted the wounded men, unshaven and unshorn, with pallid faces, sunken eyes, exhausted forms, clothed in tattered, blood and mud-stained uniforms. What a horrible picture they present of war's cruel harvest! After the bath, the fresh garments made by the lay woman's helpful hand are put on, and sinking down into the comfortable bed, with its clean linen, also provided by her busy fingers, the weary soldier sighs his content. One, whose whole right side was shattered by shrapnel, brought lately to a hospital at Dinard, after traveling for three long, suffering days in a train for the wounded, murmured as he was placed in his cot: "This is paradise!"

Surgical shirts and pajamas, warm convalescent robes, socks, sheets, towels and pillow-cases—these are the lay woman's charge. Bandages and surgical dressings she may also prepare, for any lack of these means not only additional suffering, but actual danger to the patient.

Hundreds of thousands of garments sent to Europe from America have borne upon them the little red crosses. From Pau, France, one of the American Red Cross nurses wrote, "The men all wish to wear the shirts and pajamas with the red crosses on them;" and from Gleichwitz, in Germany, reports another nurse, "A wounded Galician, who spoke no known language, gesticulated for two days before we discovered that he wanted a shirt with a little red cross on it." No wonder that they love these little red crosses, for to these men they carry a message of kindly sympathy from beyond the seas.

During weary days of convalescence the men can be read to, and simple games provided for their amusement. Here again the lay woman may find a field ready for her service.

Along the lines of the evacuation of the wounded rest stations must be established, where hot soup, coffee and other suitable refreshments for the soldiers must be ready for every train. These should be installed and operated by lay women, under the supervision of a Red Cross nurse, on guard against a diet of mince pie or lobster salad being served to a typhoid fever convalescent. There will be the men temporarily permanently crippled, who will need the aid of the lay woman. Many must be taught how again to earn their livelihood by some method suitable to the loss of eyesight, or of a leg, or an arm. There will be the wives and children of the soldiers at the front who will need her assistance, and, to her tender sympathy and care must be confided the widows and the orphans. The woman, be she lay woman or trained nurse, who is willing to do what she is best fitted to do will find no limit to the field of her usefulness in the misfortune of war.

To fulfil one of the most important of the duties devolving upon the Red Cross the National Committee on Red Cross Nursing Service, created by the War Relief Board of the American Red Cross (and consisting of fifteen members, nine of whom are selected by the American Nurses' Association), has been made responsible for the establishment of uniform qualifications to govern the enrollment of nurses and for the organization of an adequate Red Cross nursing personnel. State and local Red Cross committees of nurses have also been appointed throughout the country.

The Red Cross does not conduct a training school for nurses, but enrolls through its local committees graduate nurses who fulfil the requirements prescribed by the National Committee.

To be eligible for enrollment, an applicant must have had at least a two years' course of training received in a general hospital which includes the care of men and has a daily average of at least fifty patients during the applicant's training. Upon recommendation of the local committee, subsequent hospital experience or post-graduate work which seems to supply deficiencies of training, may be accepted as an equivalent by the National Committee.

In States where registration is provided for by law, an applicant, to be eligible for enrollment, must be registered. She must be a member of and endorsed by an organization affiliated with the American Nurses' Association, have the endorsement of the training school from which she graduated, and of at least two members of the Committee on Red Cross Nursing Service in her locality; or must submit such other evidence of fitness for the work as may be acceptable to the National Committee. Applicants must be at least twenty-five and not over forty years of age.

Nurses enrolling need not be native-born citizens, but if called upon for service in time of war they would be required to take the following oath of allegiance specified in Army Regulations:

"That I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion, and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office on which I am about to enter. So help me God."

The above oath does not in any way affect the citizenship of the nurse, and is only operative during the period of her employment in time of war.

The Red Cross nurse receives an appointment card and badge bearing the same number, record of which is kept on file both by the local committee and the National Committee. The badge remains at all times the property of the American Red Cross, and in case of death, resignation or annulment of appointment, both badge and card are returned to the National Committee. The use of the badge is protected by Act of Congress, and it is not permitted to be worn by any other than the person to whom issued.

The Red Cross has a regular uniform for its nurses. This is of a grayish-blue material. The caps, collars and aprons are made of the simplest nature to enable them to be easily laundered. This uniform was selected after careful study so as to make it practical in every way, the first consideration in its selection. Many of the nurses have provided themselves with two or three of these simple uniforms; but in case of a sudden disaster where nurses of the Red Cross Corps are called upon who have not on hand the regular uniform, the usual plain white uniforms are permitted. The Red Cross brassard can never be worn without special authority, and in case of war such brassards are issued only by the War Department. When a nurse is placed on a long tour of duty the Red Cross itself provides her with a coat for winter service and a cape for warmer weather. In time of peace a nurse is not expected to respond to a call for service if this would seriously interfere with duties she has already assumed. Otherwise she is expected to respond. In the event of war in which the United States may be involved all of the Red Cross nurses are required to report to their local committees the earliest possible date on which they would be available for service, and must thereafter hold themselves in readiness.

As it is of the utmost importance that nurses who undertake active duty for any length of time should be in the best health possible, they are required at such times to take a physical examination. The enrolled Red Cross nurses receive no allowance except when called upon for active service under the Red Cross, when their pay is the same as that provided for the Army Nurse Corps. Under these regulations the Red Cross has already enrolled six thousand of the best trained nurses in the country, coming up to the highest standard ever set for a nursing service. The record of each individual nurse is on file in Washington. She is required to keep her local committee informed of her address, as it is by means of the local committees that these nurses are mobilized.

When a serious disaster occurs at which the nurses' services are required a telegram goes from headquarters to the local committees in the vicinity asking each chairman to provide a definite number of nurses. By means of her local list the chairman communicates with the nurses, asking each in turn if she is free to go. If a favorable response is received, instructions are given at what time and at what station to report. A nurse is selected among the number as supervising nurse because of some experience or training she has received which fits her for the position of responsibility. These nurses proceed immediately to the scene of the disaster. In the meantime headquarters at Washington, on receipt of information as to what nurses are reporting for duty, selects one as the supervising nurse of all the groups.

In the case of the European war, from the enrolled nurses selections were made from those who volunteered for this service; and in the case of Serbia after typhus fever developed, the nurses were informed of the danger. Not once have our nurses failed to respond, more being ready to go in every instance than were required, and they have already made an enviable reputation for themselves. Above the badges of their enrollment the service bars of many of them testify to the fine sense of duty that inspires them.

After cyclones at Hattiesburg, in 1908, and Omaha, in 1913, they cared for the injured. Two hundred and thirty-eight were scattered throughout the devastated flood districts of Ohio and the neighboring States in 1913. They not only nursed the sick, but they proved of incalculable value to the health authorities in the prevention of epidemics by their inspection and their instructions to the people. Promptly in the field, they donned rubber boots, waded through mud and climbed over debris to reach those who needed their aid. At night they slept on mattresses on the floor or spent watchful waiting hours at remote stations to be ready for a sudden call.

After the Salem fire, in 1914, thirty of the Red Cross nurses were on active duty in the camps, the temporary hospitals, and at headquarters. In the camps they mothered the whole community, looked out for the babies, gave lessons in their proper care, made wise suggestions about the children, inspected daily the entire camp, aided in maintaining its health, and left much practical information as the legacy of their work. At Gettysburg and other veteran encampments, at inaugurations, various other functions and parades all over the country, they have maintained first aid stations.

Some idea of a nurse's duties in a disaster is given by Miss Mary E. Gladwin, who was in charge of a hundred nurses at Dayton after the floods, and who spent months at Belgrade as supervising nurse of the American Red Cross unit, courageously standing at her post of duty in the face of danger both from shot and shell and from the dread disease of typhus.

"Sleep will not come,—behind tired eyelids the too active brain sees picture after picture of the nurses at work in Dayton. In the dripping rain, the 'bread line,' an appalling line of patient, waiting people, two nurses hurrying up and down its length, helping a mother with her child, bestowing packages more securely in a basket, fastening a cloak about weary shoulders, giving a smile here, a few cheerful words there, carrying away a fretful child until the mother is ready to go home, helping a fainting woman to rest and shelter. A big modern schoolhouse, turned into a veritable hive of new activities; dormitories, dining-room, kitchen, hospital, a recitation room transformed into an accident and first-aid room, drugs and dressings on the teacher's desk; a blue-gowned young woman with the Red Cross on her arm, bandaging cuts and bruises, caring for scores of small ailments and some grave ones. A city church, the temporary home of hundreds of refugees, the 'Red Cross Lady,' ceaselessly busy caring for many patients and, between whiles, cutting bread and butter, pouring coffee, sorting and giving out old clothes, stopping to hold the hand of a forlorn old creature and to persuade her that the almshouse is a comfortable and proper place to which she need not be ashamed to go. Another schoolhouse, another nurse bathing and finding clothes for a dozen little children whose mothers have gone to see what may be saved from homes wrecked by the flood. Churches, clubs, schoolhouses, halls, each with its nurses, each a centre of beneficent healing of mind and body, pass in rapid review, and then back to our hospitable shelter, the N. C. R., as we quickly learned to call it, the National Cash Register factory, for luncheon.

"Automobiles starting from the N. C. R. in various directions; each with its Red Cross nurse, this one with an armful of blankets going to remove two children with measles from their place of refuge to a hospital; that one taking a distraught mother to the place where her lost child was last seen; another hurrying to the juvenile court to report a father's cruelty to his children; another helping a deserted wife to a train which will bear her to shelter and protection. The fifth floor of the N. C. R., bearing now little resemblance to a factory office,—an alert, business-like young woman coming forward, all in white, wearing a dainty cap with its tiny Red Cross in front, to tell us that her two hospital wards are full, her patients well cared for, and her nurses—with a smile—'working beautifully.' A modern hospital, this, with its up-to-date supervisor and its nurses wearing the uniforms of training schools of widely-separated cities.

"A city street, river mud and debris piled breast high an either side, houses off their foundations or entirely washed away; a very different looking 'Red Cross Lady,' serenely picking her way around wrecked furniture, sodden mattresses, ruins of porches and sheds;

wearing rubber boots, skirts kilted high, wet nearly to the waist, sending sick people to hospitals, inspecting plumbing, back yards and cellars; superintending all sorts of work from feeding the baby to the digging of trenches. Through all parts of the flooded city, nurses going on similar errands, inspecting nearly nine thousand houses and reporting conditions found. On the way to sanitary headquarters, a hurried glimpse of a nurse in an automobile whose triumphant expression is accounted for by the mattress, secured with great effort, in the back of the machine. On the next street another nurse in a second automobile flashing by, this time in possession of a four-burner oil stove and a great bundle of clothes and blankets. Up the sticky, muddy steps of sanitary headquarters, to find a little nurse in brown, well known in Teachers' College, New York, dispensing the most varied assortment of knowledge as to mattresses, shoes, rubber boots, baby clothes, contagious ambulances, the obligations of landlords, the cleaning of cellars. At a table on one side, a nurse in the well-known garb of the Chicago Visiting Nurse Association, with pencil poised, is answering questions, directing nurses, and making valuable and unique records.

"Evening, home to the great house in the flooded district over which floats the American flag, around gray painted boards in the dim candle light, many nurses of the Red Cross partaking of one of black Mary's good stews. Disheartened, discouraged, depressed, out of sorts with the weather and the general discomfort? Not at all. Tired enough, very cold, coughing more than one likes to hear, sometimes very hoarse; but bright, cheerful, courteous, telling stories of obstacles overcome, seeing always the bright side, looking forward eagerly to renewed service on the morrow.

"A good piece of work was that done in Dayton, thoroughly good nursing work, done in such harmony of spirit and co-operation as is seldom seen. The attempt to help in a time of great need and suffering has brought us very near together. The weeks of hard work have been a great privilege and we venture to believe have in some sort produced a new standard of public health service for times of disaster. Remembering that such work could be duplicated by the Red Cross, if necessary, in a score of places, one can only say as did the Dayton physician with tears very near the surface, 'God bless the Red Cross nurses everywhere.' "

At the Ninth International Red Cross Conference, held in Washington in 1912, a special committee was appointed to have charge of the Nightingale Foundation. The duty of this Foundation, for which a special fund was donated by the different societies, is to provide an appropriate medal to be awarded in recognition of great and exceptional devotion to the sick or wounded in peace or war. On one side of the medal there is a reproduction of the famous statue of Florence Nightingale, known as "The Lady with the Lamp." As the Foundation is commemorative of the services rendered to mankind by Florence Nightingale, who established the first modern school for the training of nurses, the medal is to be awarded only to women who have received special training as nurses. Six of these medals are available annually, and in the event of war the number may be increased to twelve. No country may propose more than one candidate yearly for this honor, and the final award is made by the International Red Cross Committee at Geneva.

In the quiet efficiency of the Red Cross Nursing Service not only is suffering being alleviated, but, perhaps unconsciously, a missionary work is being accomplished. The services of Miss Helen Scott Hay had been given by the American Red Cross to the Queen of Bulgaria for four years to organize a nurses' training school at Sofia on American lines. The sudden breaking out of the war required the postponement of this plan. At the request of the Queen of Greece, inquiries have been made as to whether the Red Cross would aid in the establishment of a similar training school at Saloniki after the war is over. The chairman of the National Nursing Committee has been asked to supervise the training of a Greek nurse and one from the Philippines in this country. This particular line of work may be the beginning of a universal Red Cross nursing standard of a high order.

Nor have we yet reached the limit of the American Red Cross nurse's patriotic and humane work. "Of all the factors which affect the welfare and the happiness of the human race probably none is so important as good health; without a vigorous body man's efficiency, comfort and happiness are disturbed or destroyed altogether." Realizing this truth, and following the general policy of the Red Cross to make its different departments of daily usefulness, the nursing service has arranged for courses for women in Elementary Hygiene and Home Care of the Sick, for which a special textbook has been prepared as supplementary to the courses in first aid. These classes are taught by Red Cross nurses. The object of the course is to instruct women in personal and household hygiene and to teach them in a simple way the care of the sick in their own homes. Every woman should realize that the hour may come when upon her will devolve the care of some invalid. This does not mean she should fit herself for professional service by years of hard study in a hospital training school, but it does mean she should learn the practical lessons taught by the Red Cross Nursing Service.

Thus in the daily life or amidst the distress and destruction of great disasters or back of the tumult of the battle line the Red Cross nurse carries on her patriotic and humane service for her country and her fellow-men. This service must be a trained and organized service. All the sentiment in the world is of little worth unless training and organization can give this sentiment practical helpful expression. Yet through the practical and efficiently trained organization must ever breathe the living spirit of the Red Cross.

"Some day," writes Charles Wagner, "the Red Cross will triumph over the cannon. The future belongs to the nurse, to the little grey sister, to all helpful powers, however humble; for two allies are theirs, suffering humanity and the merciful God."

CHAPTER IX

ALWAYS SOME WORK SOMEWHERE FOR THE RED CROSS. NATURE KEEPS IT BUSY. DESTRUCTION BY FIRE AND EARTHQUAKE. SAN FRANCISCO. LOSS OF HUMAN LIFE. CHERRY MINE DISASTER. HOW THE RED CROSS BEAT JACK FROST. A PHILIPPINE POMPEII. A CITY HOLOCAUST AND AN OCEAN WRECK. A HUNDRED FLOODED TOWNS.

MR. BICKNELL, the national director of the Red Cross, once made a careful estimate of the average number of serious disasters liable to occur in a year, and came to the conclusion that there would be five or six of sufficient magnitude to require Red Cross assistance. Such assistance is given when the relief operations are more than the local community can itself provide, though it is not infrequently the case that the local Red Cross agency is called upon to take charge of the relief work even when the community is capable of providing the necessary aid. This was done in New York when the institutional members carried out the relief after the Triangle Waist Factory fire and the Titanic wreck, and the Eastland disaster in Chicago.

Mr. Bicknell's estimate proved to be conservative. Since the winter of 1905 there have been more than seventy-five disasters, caused by earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, fires, floods, cyclones, famines, epidemics, shipwrecks and mine disasters, that Nature has provided to call the Red Cross into active duty; and as if Nature should not be allowed a monopoly of its service, man has brought about several wars to add their share of suffering and misery to the demands upon it.

In the summer of 1905 a Red Cross branch, under the patronage of the Governor and prominent Filipinos, was organized at Manila. From these distant island possessions came the first appeal for help when a typhoon swept over part of Luzon, the frail native huts on their high bamboo supports collapsing by thousands in its path. One old man explained to the Relief Committee: "My house sat down like a hen and would not get up again." In tropical countries a little money goes a long way. Where food is cheap and houses can be built for ten dollars, relief is not a serious problem.

In the spring of the following year came the first great disaster within our own territory after the Red Cross reorganization. From a tiny office in a business building a member of the Executive Committee and the then entire office force—the Secretary—had just moved the Red Cross headquarters into a pleasant room loaned by the War Department. Hardly were the desks and chairs in place when on the morning of April 18th the chief clerk of the surgeon general startled the atmosphere with the words, "There is work for the Red Cross; an earthquake at San Francisco and the city is in flames."

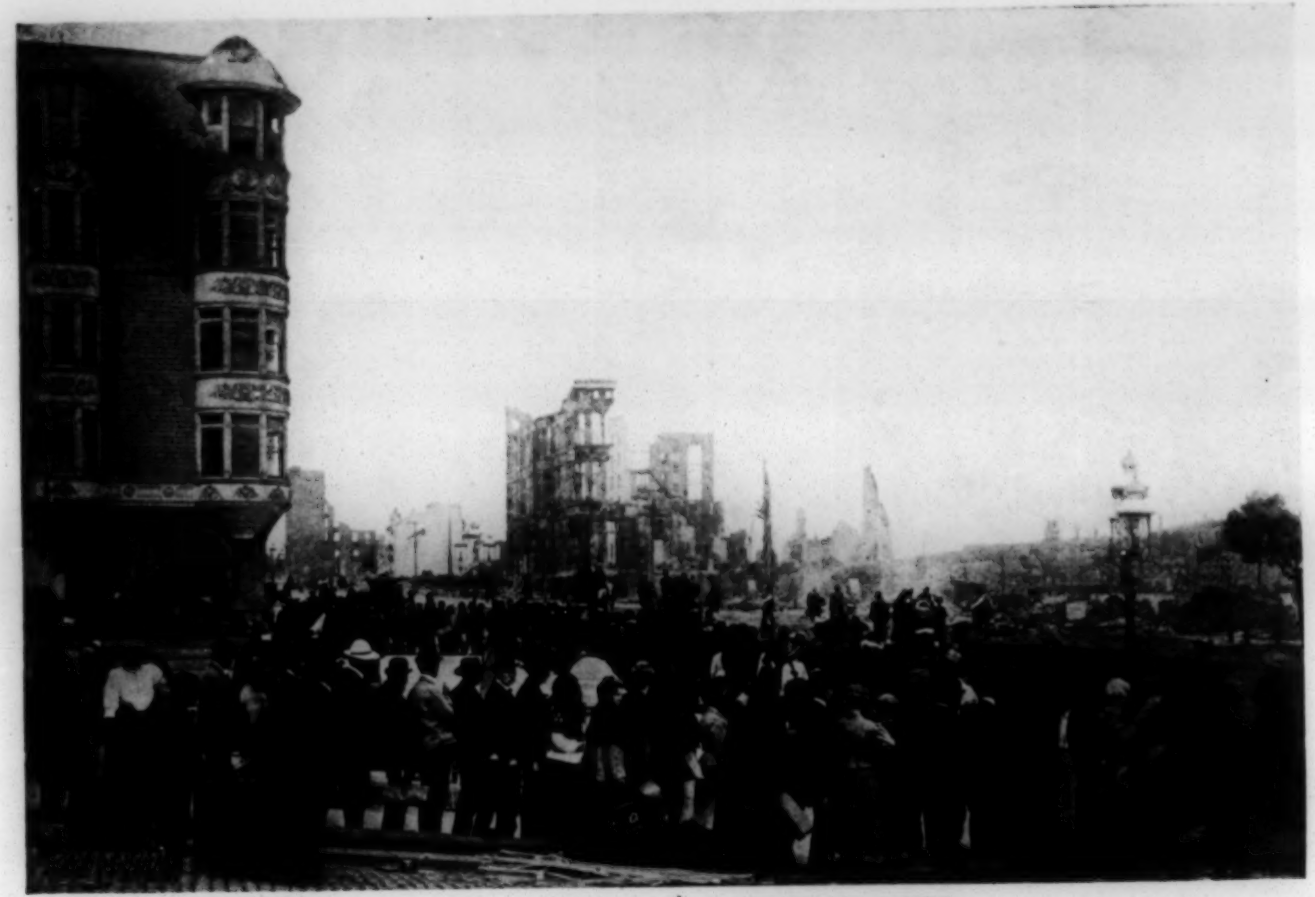
Immediate telegrams of inquiry and offers of help brought no reply, and appeals sent from the Red Cross at San Francisco failed to get through, a fact that surprises no one who has been on the scene of a disaster at the time of its occurrence or shortly afterwards, but that the public, in the serenity of normal life, attributes to inexcusable carelessness on the part of someone.

Calamities, as far as the people of a community are concerned, usually pursue the same general order. There is first the terror that comes from fear of danger and the loss of life, followed by a relapse into a dazed helplessness, which later produces a sense of hopeless despair. How long each condition lasts depends upon the character of the people. To the credit of San Francisco it may be said that the buoyant nature of her citizens brought them up with a fine promptness and courage to meet the work of their own rehabilitation. A motto chalked on one of the little street kitchens well describes the spirit that prevailed: "Make the best of it. Forget the rest of it."

The loss of life, compared with the extent of the disaster, was not serious; about five hundred were killed and a few less injured.

The earthquake occurred at twelve minutes after five in the morning, and at a quarter before seven the first citizens' relief committee was organized. Pursued by the flames from building to building, it kept at its duties. From time to time it was reorganized, and finally resolved itself into the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross Funds. Conferences were held with General Funston, later with General Greeley, and co-operative plans adopted. Military authority was extended over the entire city, which was divided into districts, both for control and relief purposes. In the "San Francisco Relief Survey," made by the Russell Sage Foundation, is epitomized the order of relief. "An invisible force had pushed relief through four broad channels: food had to be supplied; then clothing, along with bed and common household necessities; then shelter, and last, the means to make one's own provision for the future."

For the first few days millionaires and paupers stood side by side in the bread line, waiting to obtain their daily rations. No fires were permitted in the houses that remained lest the cracked and twisted chimneys might start the conflagration afresh. As rapidly as possible the abnormal bread lines were done away with. Families, after investigation, received a card with which they applied for rations or clothing at the station of their district, the date of the issuing being cancelled on the card to prevent repeating, as one energetic Italian family secured enough supplies from different stations to start a small store if its own. Free food has its temptations,—but a strict adherence to army rations tends to reduce the number of applicants.



ONE OF SAN FRANCISCO'S LONG BREAD LINES

Calamities upset law and order, moral as well as physical. At such a time the service that is rendered by the United States army is deserving of the highest praise. Its quiet discipline and trained personnel bring order out of chaos, protect life and property, while its stores provide rations and tents for the first immediate needs.

In all the open squares and parks of the city, after the hasty blanket or quilt shelters of the first day or two were abandoned, there arose colony after colony of tents, and, thanks to the climate of San Francisco, the people throve in this out-of-door life. Later, as the tents became weather worn, several thousand small wooden houses were built to take their place. When the authorities required the parks to be vacated, many of these small dwellings were moved away as permanent homes for their occupants.

Dr. Edward T. Devine, of New York, represented the Red Cross on the Relief Committee, and his trained ability was of particular value in the problem of rehabilitation. By means of registration not only were families again brought together and long-delayed letters and telegrams delivered, but plans for the refugees to make their own provision for the future became practicable.

The sympathy of the entire country was aroused, and money by telegram, by check, by letter and by hand flowed into headquarters and to the Committee Treasurer at San Francisco. Later a trial for dishonesty on the part of certain city officials gave rise to a wrong impression that some of the relief funds had been misappropriated. This was not the case, as these funds were never handled by the officials in question. A man in charge of the delivery of blankets for one of the camps stole a wagon-load, for which he was promptly arrested, tried and convicted. No other case of dishonesty occurred, though it is probable that in the earlier days petty pilfering of stores occasionally took place.

Carload after carload of supplies congested the railroad yards. So fast they came space could not be found for their contents, and frequently butter, eggs and other perishable foods sadly wasted their best days mixed up with boxes of clothing and barrels of flour. A sudden wave of sympathy for the babies brought such a quantity of condensed milk that General Greeley in despair sent a hurried dispatch to Washington to the effect that there was enough on hand to last sixteen years, and fresh milk in plenty was obtainable from the surrounding country. This is an example of wasteful enthusiasm that is without suggestive control. No one thought of such a prosaic gift as soap until an urgent appeal came for the much needed article. The lack of judgment on the part of some in the sending of clothing was shown in two ways. Ball gowns and satin slippers were hardly appropriate garments for the refugees, and yet these were scattered through the miscellaneous mass of clothing that poured into the city. Still worse, however, were the garments so soiled and dirty that they were not only a reflection upon their donors but a menace to the health of any recipient had the committee not disposed of them by prompt cremation. One indignant dame, not satisfied with a supply of plain, clean and mostly new clothing given her, sent them on with a letter to President Roosevelt as a sample of the country's generosity. They were turned over to the Red Cross headquarters and handed to the Salvation Army, which accepted them gratefully.

The final stage of relief, the rehabilitation of families, was so successfully accomplished that eventually not more than six hundred persons were left permanently dependent. These were cared for in the Relief Home,—which was built from the funds and turned over to the city to maintain.

Rehabilitation was generally secured by means of small grants of money after careful investigation and full explanation as to the use to be made of the funds, whether for house building, restocking of small stores,—or the purchasing of tools or other articles useful in the earning of a livelihood. This cannot be done without some heartburnings, and one childless woman bombarded the "Honorable Gentlemen" at headquarters for many months with vituperative complaints against the San Francisco Committee, because her neighbor, with a family of small children, had received a larger grant than she.

At one time there were in the bread line over three hundred thousand persons, but the number finally which received more than this temporary assistance amounted to some twenty-seven thousand families.

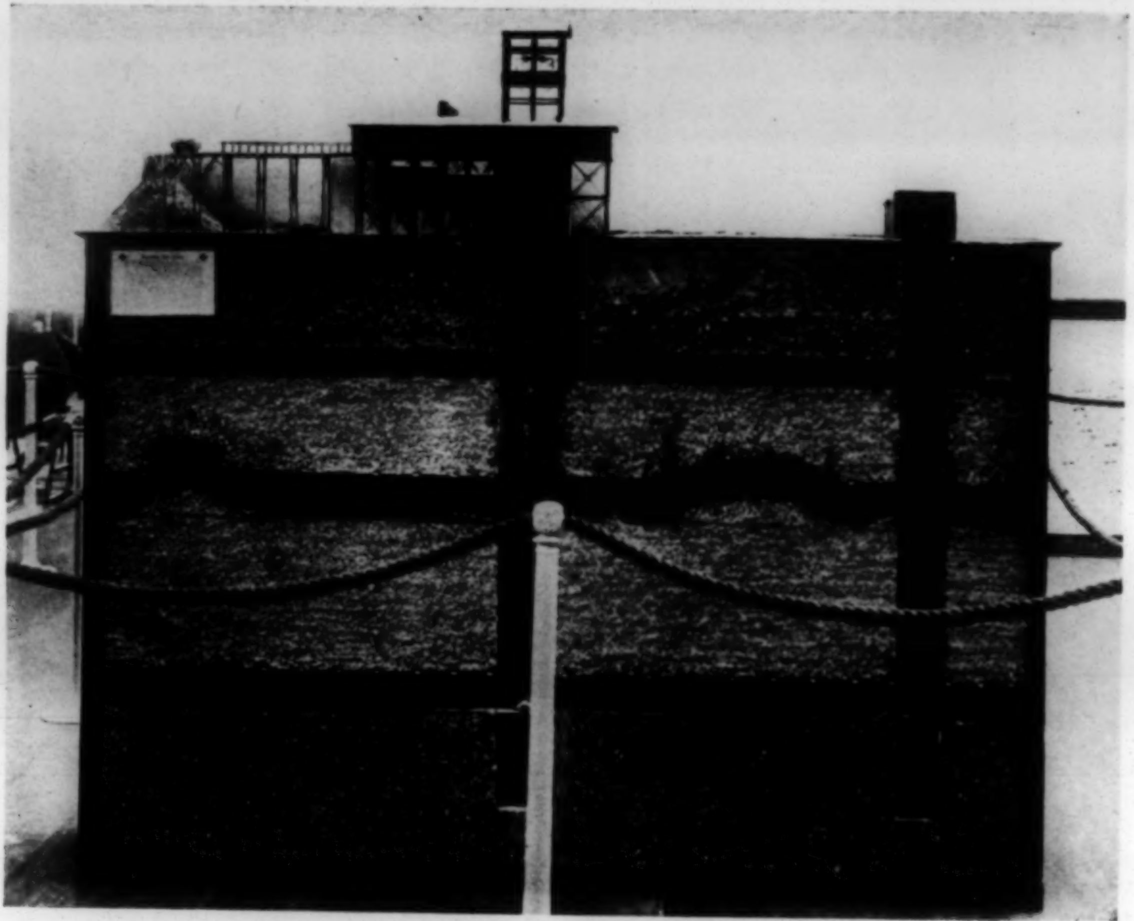
Not all disasters are alike in their destruction. In fires, floods and cyclones the greatest destruction is of property, whereas in mine explosions, shipwrecks, and epidemics the serious loss is that of human life. Earthquakes and volcanic eruptions are destructive in a large measure of both life and property.

In the northwestern corner of the great Illinois coal field grew up the little village of Cherry, clustering around the shafts of the mine. Mr. Bicknell described graphically the scene of the disaster and the tragedy that occurred there. "Cherry is a grimy, dirty, unkempt community. It lacks water and lights and drainage. Sidewalks are mostly cinder paths. The streets are the black prairie soil which becomes dust in summer and mud in winter. The population is chiefly of young and vigorous people. Nationalities represented are many. Italians and Slavonians are most numerous. Besides, there are Americans, Germans, Austrians, Russians, Greeks, French, Belgians, Lithuanians, English and Scotch. Many are recently from the old country and ignorant of the English language."

One cold grey Saturday afternoon in November the Cherry mine caught fire from a load of hay that came in contact with a torch. The flames rapidly spread through the two shafts, cutting off all escape for a large number of miners. Eleven rescuers lost their lives in an heroic effort to save others. "The usual and normal processes of the village life were forgotten. All the thoughts of all the people were suddenly converted into the emotions of hope and fear, as water dropped in molten metal turns instantly to steam. All the strength of the community was dedicated to effort at rescue. Then came the suspense of waiting. In the grey of dawn women, with babies in their arms and other babies clinging to their skirts, gathered in silent groups about the shaft. When darkness fell they melted away to their desolate homes. They scarcely ate. They neglected their children and themselves. Occasionally some overwrought watcher at the shaft would burst the bounds of frozen grief and shriek out her fears in wild, formless cries. But these incidents served only to accentuate the dumb, brooding, terrible silence of those who waited as the days dragged on."

On Thanksgiving Day sealed caps of concrete were laid upon the mouths of both shafts to smother the fire. Had hope survived in any breast, this sealing of the mine extinguished its last spark.

Governor Deneen, as president of the State Red Cross Board, announced that no aid outside was required. Temporary relief was provided for the women and children, while the Red Cross national director perfected a pension system for permanent aid. The State appropriation of one hundred thousand dollars, the Red Cross contribution of one hundred thousand dollars, the miners' fund of seventy thousand dollars, and thirty thousand dollars from other sources were placed in a common fund, and under the direction of a competent committee pensions for each woman and each child under sixteen years of age were provided. The families were kept together and the mothers required to send the children to school.



REPRODUCTION OF THE CHERRY MINE DISASTER

The Red Cross became the wage earner of the family and the guardian of the children. The mayor of Cherry later wrote, "The plan has worked like a charm."

The same year a furious gulf storm at Key West wrecked the little fleet of fishing boats, the means of livelihood of the sponge and other fishermen of the community. There under the suggestions of the Red Cross representative contributions were used to buy boat materials and the men paid a small wage while they were rebuilding their ships. As each was completed its owner was taken from the list of those aided, as he was back in a position to again support himself.

Another governor acted promptly on a State disaster when in October, 1910, Governor Eberhardt by virtue of his position as president of the Minnesota Red Cross board, appealed to the people of his State for aid for the sufferers from a forest fire close to the Canadian border. On the banks of the Rainy River the two little villages of Beaudette and Spooner were burned almost entirely to the ground, the people taking refuge in streams, wells and root cellars to save their lives. They were honest farming and lumber folk, mainly of Scandinavian origin. It was October, and in a month winter would be upon them.

When the Red Cross arrived it found them sad and dejected amidst the ashes of their little homes. Fate seemed to be driving them away to add to the pauper classes of the cities of the State. But cheer came with this wonderful organization of help. Lumber, duty free, was permitted by the Treasury Department to be imported from Canada, as there was no other near at hand. A few master carpenters were brought to the place, and building "bees" were immediately in order. There a group of men, busy with saw and hammer, raised a little house for Ole Oleson, and when this was finished next door they moved to build one for Jan Jansen. Where there had been despair and desolation there arose courage and happiness, as they sang and whistled over their work. In a month every one in the two villages was under shelter. It was a race between the Red Cross and Jack Frost, and the Red Cross won.

In the middle of Lake Taal, in the island of Luzon, there arises a low volcano, only a few hundred feet above the surface of the water. Little Philippine villages dot the coast of the volcanic island and the opposite shore of the lake. It was a primitive, if modern, Pompeii that was reproduced by the volcanic eruption of Mt. Taal before daybreak on the morning of January 30, 1911. In the twinkling of an eye more than thirteen hundred sleeping people were destroyed. The explosion awoke far away Manila, and shattered churches and buildings in distant towns. For a century and a half the volcano had slumbered, and the people had so lost their fear that even on its very slopes were built the grass houses of the natives. The country round about was green with rich tropical vegetation when, like a great, all-enveloping mantle, there fell upon it for many miles the mass of grey ashes. The sulphurous fumes seem to have overcome man and beast, for many of the unfortunate people were found with their faces buried in the ground in the effort to escape them. After the eruption a tidal wave swept over the lower villages, carrying into the lake many of the ruins caused by the eruption.

From the Red Cross in Washington a thousand dollars was immediately cabled to the governor, and more aid was offered; but with an independent spirit highly to be commended, the islands declined further assistance; and the local Red Cross received fifteen thousand dollars in contributions. No roads ran around the lake, and boats had to be drawn up by ropes from the sea through the shallow river so that the relief parties could reach the sufferers. A field hospital was established to give immediate care to the injured who had been burned by the hot ashes and who were later removed by boat to

A MODERN POMPEII IN THE PHILIPPINES

other places. The native survivors uttered no complaint, gave no sign of emotion and asked for no assistance.

As soon as it could be done the widows and orphans were sought out, and rice and dry fish provided them for food. The Government allotted funds to employ the men on public roads, and the contributed moneys were used to tide the people over until the next harvest. The lavish hand of Nature in the islands in a few months' time began to cover with the greenness of grass, sugar cane and bamboo the scars she herself had wrought.

In mine disasters the loss of the wage earner of the family leaves many dependent, but after any destruction of human life, except where only children are concerned, persons will be found whose support has perished with the disaster. The Triangle Waist Factory fire, which occurred on a Saturday afternoon of March, 1911, found between four and five hundred persons entrapped on the upper floor of a large building in lower New York City. One hundred and forty-five, mainly young women, perished in this tragic disaster. Three-fourths of the families in which the deaths occurred were Jewish, and all save three of the remainder were Italians. In many cases the women proved to have been the mainstay of the family.

According to the policy of the Red Cross, there was added to its local standing emergency committee several persons whose experience and counsel were of special value—the president of the United Hebrew Charities, the president of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, a representative of a large insurance company and a representative of the Italian community. Immediate provision was made for the care of the injured and those who had suffered from severe nervous shock, and to aid the neediest families in meeting the funeral expenses of the victims. In cases where a lump sum could be used to advantage, this was given. Several families were thereby enabled to start small grocery or fruit stores. To others who were left helpless and disorganized a pension was provided. A certain portion of the relief funds was transmitted to Europe to aid old and dependent relatives there, and one old Italian woman who lost her daughter, her only support, was sent back to Italy, with a thousand dollars, as she desired to enter a convent there.

It is not often that more can be done in relief work than to meet the actual needs created by the disaster, but in the case of the Triangle Waist Factory fire the committee were able to consider the sorrow of the relatives of the unfortunate victims whose bodies were not identified and to gratify their natural desire for some remembrance by the erection in a cemetery where many were buried, of a monument typifying grief in the bowed figure of a young woman.

A similar relief problem occurred after the loss of the Titanic, but with certain additional complications because of the organization of several committees, raising and administering funds, and because of the advisability of making an agreement with the English committee, which received more than two million dollars. The Red Cross worked in a co-operative way, and a satisfactory arrangement with the British committee was brought about whereby the American funds were devoted to the needs of the survivors in the Western Hemisphere. A special Red Cross agent was sent to Halifax to identify as far as possible the bodies of persons whose relatives were too poor to do this themselves. So many men were drowned that a large number of emigrant families were left without the husband and father. Others had brought with them all their worldly property, much of which went down with the steamer; and still others suffered from physical injury. Again grants were made or pensions provided. An old dependent father in Brazil has received a monthly pension ever since the disaster, and several widows with children have been taken care of in the same way.

A curious incident in regard to an impostor developed in this relief work. A boy of about sixteen years of age claimed assistance as a survivor. So vivid was his description of his experience during the shipwreck that it seemed impossible to doubt his statement. Later, on investigation, he was found to be of deficient mentality. The reading of the account in the papers had made such an impression on his peculiar mind that he became honestly convinced that he had himself endured the horrors of the shipwreck.

In March, 1913, what may be termed an epidemic of disasters followed each other. On the twenty-first of the month a tornado swept across lower Alabama, wrenching and twisting great trees from their trunks like straws, raising houses bodily from their foundation and leveling them with the ground. The force of the wind in these tornadoes is almost unbelievable. At one place a house was completely destroyed and every inmate killed. Not far away another was lifted from its foundation over the head of its terrified occupants, who found themselves tumbling and rolling upon the ground without serious injury. It was marvelous that any escaped, the destruction of everything in the path of the tornado was so complete. After the injured had been taken care of, the relief of the Red Cross took the form of aid in the rebuilding of simple houses, and in one case where the rural postman's horse had been killed another was provided so that he could continue his duties and support his family.

Two days later, on Easter eve—the twenty-third—clouds of inky blackness heralded "a funnel-shaped twister" that cut a narrow channel of awful destruction through the city of Omaha. The institutional members of the Red Cross at Chicago and St. Louis were requested by wire to proceed to Omaha to offer Red Cross aid and to be of any assistance desired. The National director started from Washington. He had gotten no farther than Chicago when the third disaster halted him on his journey. Since the San Francisco fire no such serious calamity had occurred in the United States until the great Ohio floods of 1913. It is a strange fact that about the same number of families required aid in these floods as in the earthquake and fire at the Golden Gate. But the problem, because of the large number of cities, towns and villages, was far more complicated. On the other hand, thanks to Governor Cox's prompt and wise decision, the relief operations were placed in the hands of the Red Cross so that there was one, and not a multitude of agencies in charge. As president of the State Red Cross Board, he called a meeting of its members at Columbus. This meeting was attended also by the chairman of the National Relief Board, who reached the State capital by a roundabout journey to Knoxville and Cincinnati, and by the National director, after having been marooned for forty-eight hours by the floods farther west. The Army, as usual, had promptly come to the aid of the people, the Secretary of War and the chief-of-staff having gone in person to the flooded district. Almost the entire State of Ohio was involved, and many river communities in West Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana and Illinois suffered serious damage.

In the bright spring sunshine of a Sunday morning only a few days after the disaster, with the rivers back again within their banks, save for the scenes of ruin and desolation on every hand, it was difficult to realize the terrifying experiences that had so lately been undergone. The agonizing hours passed by those clinging to swaying trees until some dropped from sheer exhaustion into the raging currents below, the strain and weariness of waiting without food or shelter on some rocking cottage roof in the cold and pitiless rain for the waters to subside or a rescuing boat to appear, the fear of being

From a Photograph by Arthur E. Dunn

CYCLONE'S WRECKAGE AT OMAHA

swept away as huge logs or parts of wreckage beat like a battering ram against the houses, trembling in the torrents of roaring water, were gone with the earlier days of the disaster. Out in the streets, in the gardens and the lawns were broken and mud-covered furniture, drying in the sun, while men and women with hoes and spades were patiently shoveling out sediment that lay inches deep over all the lower floors.

The story of the relief work need not be again repeated. Into the field the Red Cross placed over sixty experts to assist and advise the local committees that were organized. By means of its registration cards the number of families in each city, town or village who required assistance was obtained, and the appropriation for each community was based upon these records, a task that without this method would have been almost impossible to accomplish justly and would have led to infinite dissatisfaction.

The funds were not handled by the Red Cross representatives in any save a very few small localities, but were placed to the credit of the treasurer of a local committee, such committee having first to obtain the approval of its personel by the Red Cross National director. In the paying out of all funds the vouchers had to receive the approval of the local Red Cross representative. In this way a double check was placed upon the expenditures. As an example of certain methods in the relief work an arrangement may be cited from Dayton where about five thousand families required furniture. A grant of a certain amount was made to each according to its needs. The grant, however, was not made in money but in the form of an order for the amount on any one of some twelve furniture stores in the city that had suffered heavy losses. In this way the families were provided with what they needed and at the same time, though desiring no donations from relief funds, business men of the city were assisted to re-establish themselves.

Tragic as disasters are, they are rarely without some touch of humor. A small place of two hundred and fourteen houses with the ambitious name of Future City near Cairo, Illinois, where the Ohio enters the Mississippi River, was the scene of a lively chase on the part of its citizens. Warned of the approach of the flood, they had escaped to the levees or to high ground. One after another of the little frame dwellings arose from its foundation and floated away on the flood-waters. Beholding this desertion on the part of their property, a sudden inspiration seized their owners. Several motor boats were secured, and, greatly to the excitement and entertainment of the crowds on the tops of the levees, a remarkable chase after the runaways took place. "A boat would dash alongside of a house, her crew would quickly attach a rope to some convenient projection, and the chugging motor would tow her back to Future City. Water was deep over all, and no one could determine the exact spot from which the house had come, but it would be brought back to its own neighborhood and anchored to a tree or telegraph pole. Then away would hurry the motor boat for another capture." One hundred and sixty-eight houses were caught and brought home. When the waters receded, there they lay, in their muddy beds, not one on its own foundation, many of them on their sides, and some resting even on their roofs.

Here the Red Cross came to the aid of the deserving people. The former location of each dwelling was identified, and an estimate secured from contractors of the cost of returning the houses. Wherever any one of the owners could by his own labors lessen the estimated cost he was allowed the balance for the repairs after the house was again in place. By an expenditure of about twenty-two thousand dollars, Future City was entirely re-established. "The cardinal principles of the American Red Cross clearly had been held in view. The initiative and detail had been carried by a committee of local people. The recipients of awards had been placed under obligations to do as much additional for themselves as was practicable under all the conditions of the case. Encouragement by this assistance displaced gloom, defeat and discontent in the entire community. Doubt as to the wisdom of frugality and independence was removed."

Nothing more than a bird's eye view has been given in these few brief stories of some great fields of Red Cross work, but enough to illustrate generally its methods and its policies. It purposes to injure neither the self-reliance of the individual nor the community, but by means of its trained personnel and its relief methods, gained from long practical experience, to arouse confidence and courage, which, with such assistance, will bring about prompt rehabilitation and the return of normal conditions.

CHAPTER X

PUBLIC IDEAS OF RELIEF MEASURES. BREAD LINES. CLOTHING BUREAUS. REFUGEE CAMPS. MONEY. RED CROSS METHODS. REHABILITATION.

"EXTRA!" shouts the shrill voice of the newsboy. "Turrible disaster. Thousands killed." The air becomes electric with excitement. The public thrills with sensational emotion. A momentary dread sweeps over the individual that the catastrophe may have some indirect connection with himself, but this fear once allayed he gives himself up to the telling and hearing of some new thing. The psychological effect produced upon the public by serious disasters makes an interesting study. Not unsympathetic, yet craving the sensational, it gauges the size of the catastrophe by the number who have been killed rather than by the number who are suffering Exaggerated estimates of the fatalities fill the papers, save when some fearful earthquake or volcanic eruption destroys such appalling numbers that even the press hesitates before the truth. Taking into consideration the public's unit of measure, which largely influences its giving, these early exaggerations result in benefit to the survivors.

Several years ago when the volcanic eruption in the Island of Martinique destroyed the town of St. Pierre, as soon as the startling new reached this country immediate means were taken to secure relief funds, and over eighty thousand dollars were received before it was learned that there was only one survivor, the rest of the entire population having been instantly blotted out of existence. The individual who escaped owed his life to the fact that being a prisoner he was so closely confined even death itself was unable to reach him. This sole refugee evidently lacked the enterprise of certain others who have been known elsewhere, or a lawsuit would have been promptly instituted on his behalf as the rightful claimant of the funds contributed for the benefit of the survivors of the eruption. These were returned to such donors as desired, and the remainder, with the consent of the contributors, was given for various philanthropic purposes.

If there is little else of interest to fill the papers, the details of a calamity are more fully reported, and the story is prolonged from day to day, until the laggards in generosity are moved to give. Sometimes a serious disaster is blanketed by the occurrence of a lesser one which presents more sensational features. At the time of the Titanic loss a great flood was causing serious danger, loss and suffering to many thousands of persons, but the sinking of the immense steamer, the large number of prominent persons drowned, the dramatic experience of the survivors and the tragic stories of those who perished overshadowed the appealing needs of the unfortunate people of the Mississippi Valley.

The first excitement as to the immediate fatalities having died away, the public, save such as may have come in direct contact with the suffering, questions little of the injured. Those in the towns near Messina and Reggio who helped unload the flat cars of their pitiful human freight, who saw the crushed and mangled bodies and witnessed the agonies of the wretched victims can never obliterate from their memories those awful scenes of human misery. One who was at Taormina gives a vivid description of her experience. "If I wrote for hours I could not tell you of the horrors we have seen in the last three days. During the first day the long trains came in perhaps every hour with the wounded and the dying huddled together with the refugees, all with that frightened look of horror on their faces. When the officials thought the people were dying they would be taken off at our station, and we had arranged the waiting room into a place to receive them. When the tables were all full they would have to go on the floor—poor, poor people, sometimes you could hardly see for the blood that they were human beings, and they were mangled beyond words, some had both arms and legs broken, many had not eaten for days and their thirst was terrible."

Often even the sufferers themselves, beholding the destruction of the butcher and the baker shops, become hysterical over the fear of famine, and frantic appeals are made to the War Department to send millions of rations to prevent starvation. Little do they realize what actual famine and starvation mean or how long the human body can retain life without food or nourishment. It is true that in floods of long duration when persons are marooned in upper stories, or in the destruction by earthquakes are entrapped for days in cellars and unable to obtain food, much suffering results; but even then hardly ever actual starvation.

The entire neighborhood surrounding the scene of a disaster, with bewildering generosity loads wagons, carriages and automobiles with all the available food supplies upon which it can lay its hands. When the forests on the steep slopes of Mount Tamalpias burst into flames one July day, strenuous were the efforts of five thousand men to extinguish the fires. To the rescue of this valiant army went the San Francisco Red Cross, with such a supply of "eatables, drinkables and smokeables" that the fire-fighters were reported as vanquishing the fire with one hand and the sandwiches with the other, while the smoke of many pounds of tobacco joined with that of the forests.

Following the lead of the nearer neighborhood, the more distant parts of the country fill to overflowing freight cars and hurry them off to the unfortunate community. Railroad companies in spite often of serious losses themselves, give free transportation for relief supplies, while telegraph and telephone companies transmit Red Cross Messages without charge. The War Department, on urgent appeals, rushes rations by the thousands to the scene, so that it is doubtful if in any of our national disasters the victims have ever suffered long from hunger. In fact, there have been occasions when the sight seeing crowds attracted to the spot have had to be fed upon donations, as there was no other way of appeasing their needs. This generosity is not to be discouraged. Its promptness prevents much suffering, and saves the relief funds for the assistance that only money can provide.

One of the most familiar sights connected with relief is the bread line. A motley throng of men, women and children straggle down the street, around a corner and a block or two away. Card in hand and basket on arm, patiently they stand, advancing slowly to their goal. The supply station may be in some large armory, down the length of which stretches an interminable counter, separating pyramids of comestibles from the waiting refugees. At the entrance the cards giving the name of the applicant and the number in the family are scrutinized by an inspector, who passes on their owners or turns them back should suspicion be aroused. Down the long counter moves the line. Into the waiting baskets are stowed here a loaf of bread, there a package of tea, until the rations for each are completed. Mrs. McGinnis may stumble over small, black-eyed Guiseppi in her anxiety to see if Mrs. Rosenbaum has a larger package of codfish than she; and Madame Martine may protest in broken English that she should have more sugar for her numerous offspring, yet it is generally a silent, orderly procession, that accepts without thanks or comment what is given.

It is difficult at first to keep fraudulent applicants out of the bread line, for in the earlier days one must go on the principle "better let a hundred impostors be fed than one honest man go hungry." For this reason, and for a still stronger one, bread lines should be done away with as soon as possible. They are a constant reminder of an abnormal condition and tend to prolong the dependency of the people. When material aid must be given, orders on local tradespeople for food supplies should be substituted, thus turning the relief work into a more normal channel and at the same time helping to restore the busines of the community. This is the policy of the Red Cross.

The needs of the inner man having been duly attended to, the next consideration involves the clothing problem. In this, both at the source of the contribution and at its distribution human nature manifests itself in many ways. There are some among the donors who evidently consider disasters a Providential opportunity provided for the clearing out of long accumulated attic rubbish; but these are the exception, far the greater number pour out their gifts with a wealth of generous spirit where often there is little wealth beside. There is the sympathetic old lady, unmindful of next winter's need, who brings her soft, warm shawl "for some poor soul who may be glad to have it," or the laboring man who stops at some collecting station in a distant town to leave his overcoat with an "I don't need it, as spring will soon be here." Sometimes the black-garbed mother, with tearful eyes, lays beside the packer's box a bundle of babies' clothes that her child no longer needs. The liveried footman from the luxurious motor brings a great box of newly purchased garments, while the street urchin drops on the floor in a corner to take off his shoes, "Because I don't mind going barefoot, lady, and maybe some other boy'd catch cold without any shoes." The touch of sorrow makes the whole world kin.

At the bureau of distribution great wagons dump boxes, bales and barrels of clothing. Into the unpacking room they go, where busy women sort them out—men's, women's and children's coats and dresses, hats and underwear, shoes and stockings, each having their particular pile upon which requisitions can be made. What a metamorphosis a large school building presents when used for a clothing station. Here, where belong the books and papers the desks are covered with shoes, some new, some old, the little ones on the front row and the larger ones at the back. The seats are filled with women and children, busily trying on shoes, with half an eye glued to all the new ones in the vicinity. From the cloak room nails hang coats and cloaks as many hued as the rainbow and all-embracing as to styles.

Escorted by one of the clothing committee, a refugee family makes its rounds. What is becoming to Mary is long considered. Shall Tommy, who looks with covetous eyes on long trousers, be advanced to such a dignity? Shall mother accept a coat or a shawl as best suited to her figure? All these are problems that the committee member helps to solve. Many a criticism is passed upon the fashion of the garments, but what matter if there is a look into the gift horse's mouth. Poor souls, how many of them have lost the simple treasures of a lifetime that no money can replace.

There are always a few to whom a disaster proves a bonanza. They belong to that social strata who have owned little, lived in cheap lodging houses, and who practically lost nothing because they had nothing to lose. Ashes tell no tales, and who can gainsay their stories of lost property. They must share together, the just and the unjust, and one hardly begrudges them the small stroke of good fortune. It is an ill wind that blows nobody good.

Among the household necessities the stove occupies an especially honorable position. "Oh, Miss, won't you please help me get a stove. Here am I, a real born American, and all these furriners are getting ahead of me," pleads an elderly and respectably arrayed dame. "Perhaps you think me rich because I have got on this black silk dress. But, mercy, no. I just put on my best clothes to save them when I saw the fire comin' our way. You may think me fat. Bless you, dear; I have got one dress on top of the other for I don't like to leave either of them in the place we have got. There are some folks would steal even a poor body's clothes off their back. I haven't had a bit of help, and there's that Mrs. Krasnokoutski, a shiftless creature with a dozen children, got a lot of furniture when she never owned so much as a kitchen chair before the fire. Some people have all the luck. My poor old man, he is over eighty, been in bed with rheumatics ever since that awful night; well nigh killed him—and I haven't even a stove to cook his dinner. It comes mighty hard when you are seventy-five years old to be asking for charity. There is that Eyetalian fruit-man that cheated me last week going off with a bundle of clothing big enough for a boarding house, and me, that was born in this very town, ain't got so much as a single stove." And the tears rolled down the cheeks of the poor old lady. "Never mind," say you of the committee, "this is not charity, this is the Red Cross." And the tears on the wrinkled cheeks are brushed away with a sense of comforted and re-established respectability. It is true that after you have seated the ancient American refugee on a comfortable bench and with some indignation approached a table, back of which is seated a business-like young man or woman, to inquire why Mrs. Jeremiah Allen, of 23 Trimble Street, has not been provided with anything, not even a stove, you may be a bit chagrined to learn by the registration cards that chairs, food, clothing and various other articles have been bestowed upon Mrs. J. Allen at the same address. The old lady's anxiety to obtain the stove led her somewhat away from the narrow path of truth. When you finally return triumphant with the stove order in hand you find her happy with a ten-dollar bill that she announces "the minister over to the First Congregational Church where I go once in a while, gave me. Now I guess I will go out and do a little shopping, dearie."

Should there be offered to each refugee in place of food, clothing and household articles, half of their value in money there would be a prompt acceptance on the part of ninety per cent., but the practical results of such assistance would prove far from satisfactory. Two sisters in Ohio who had lived in a small rented apartment complained bitterly that only thirty dollars had been allotted to them for furniture. On inquiry being made as to what was purchased with this amount, they acknowledged that for weeks before the flood they had cast longing eyes on six dining room chairs that were valued at forty-eight dollars. These had been slightly damaged by water, and were marked down to thirty dollars. The grant just filled the bargain. How could they resist!

The policy of the Red Cross regarding money grants is to secure beforehand, as far as possible, a definite understanding with the recipient as to the use to which such funds are to be applied. Several years ago in Colorado after a serious mine accident an appropriation was made by the State legislature for the benefit of the widows. Each of these women who received several hundred dollars, had probably never before had more than ten dollars at a time in her possession. Here was to them untold wealth, and immediately they became the prey of unscrupulous individuals, into whose pockets much of the State appropriation soon found its way. One vampire robbed these luckless creatures by securing an order from nearly every widow for a portrait of her unfortunate husband. In this case had the Red Cross been in charge the women would have been safeguarded, the system used after the Cherry mine disaster would have been carried out, pensions provided, and the State funds would not have become the property of men worthy the name of criminals. Efforts have been made by so-called benefit societies or associations of refugees to secure by means of law the moneys contributed to the Red Cross for relief work, but fortunately without success.

Mr. Cannon, when Speaker of the House of Representatives, once expressed to an officer of the Red Cross his conviction that all Government appropriations for relief purposes should be placed in the hands of the Red Cross for administration. This would tend toward the concentration of all funds under expert management, prevent duplicating efforts, insure better economic results, lessen the expense of administration, and also the political pressure. In both Ohio and Illinois such an arrangement was fully justified by results. In the former case out of the State appropriation of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars for flood relief, only one hundred thousand was expended; and in Illinois the one hundred thousand dollars appropriated for the Cherry miners' families became part of the combined pension fund.

Life in a refugee camp for many of its occupants is rather a pleasant experience in summer weather, for vacation funds in many cities send mothers and children for a restful week into camp life in the country. Military discipline and strict sanitary regulations must be maintained, but these are not a hardship, and many of the tired mothers of large families revel in the recess from the kitchen stove and the washing tub. Three times a day all that they have to do is to marshal their tentholds into line, arm them with tin table utensils, and march them down to the big dinner tent, passing the open-air kitchen, where well-cooked meals are ladled into the outstretched dishes to be carried to the community tables. No food is permitted in the other tents, and loud voiced protests are occasionaly heard when Red Cross nurses and Camp orderlies confiscate green apples, stale cake or the more objectionable bottles, fished out from under a hospitable tent floor. If the camp is a large one, at its entrance will be found the post-office and the information registry, for the camp population is a fluctuating one. Families try other quarters for a while, and then drift back to its friendly shelter. Men who have secured work and are without families are not permitted its assistance.

On a knoll at one side a little group of tents, over which floats a Red Cross flag, form the doctors' and nurses' station. A watchful eye is kept over the large family in their care. Here is the milk tent, with bottles scalding in hot water, where the babies' food is prepared with a care never before known to mother and child. Round cheeked and rosy grow the puny youngsters, who have before lived upon prepared infant food, or even tea and coffee. There is the bathing tent, with its oil stove and array of soap and clean towels around the little tubs. Great excitement was created one day when an immigrant father permitted his two-year-old boy to receive his first bath, and his irate mother, discovering the performance after it had begun, shrieked aloud over the inhuman treatment of her offspring.

A healthful life is this at a refugee camp, but one not to be too long tolerated, for idleness is a habit easily acquired and difficult to overcome. Frequent were the disapprovals of the California housewives over the attitude of Maggie, who preferred the social life of a refugee camp at San Francisco to the joys of domestic service in the country round about.

The final stage in relief work and one of the most important, though it interests the general public the least, is that of rehabilitation. This is the end the Red Cross always has in view. Each one of its institutional members throughout the country is provided with a box like a dress suit case. This box contains a Red Cross flag to mark a relief station, voucher forms, telegraph blanks, pencil, paper, and a thousand or more registration cards. These cards have been prepared to meet all sorts and kinds of disasters. The minute the call comes for aid the institutional member, his relief case in hand, is ready to start the work of rehabilitation by an immediate registration of the families. Each man's name with those of his family are set down. Who, if any, have been disabled. Next follow his debit and credit disaster account. What has he lost—his house, furniture and clothing, business building, stock and equipment, farming implements, barns and live stock—and what is their estimated value? Has he lost his employment?

On the credit side of the ledger: What are his material resources, insurance, real estate, savings and undestroyed property, against which there may be mortgages or other debts to be noted. Then comes his occupational resources—has he a permanent occupation? What are his wages? Who are his present employers, and what was his former employment? Among his social resources there are labor unions, clubs, or benefit societies to which he may belong and from which he may obtain assistance; or relatives who may lend a helping hand. Finally comes the family's plans for the future and the suggestions the Red Cross agent has to make, with a few lines as to what action is eventually taken for permanent rehabilitation. This is the real proof of successful relief operations, for although temporary aid may be all that is necessary in some cases, the great majority of the victims of a catastrophe need the assistance of experienced persons to open up a new future before them and to place them again on the self-supporting basis they occupied before misfortune overtook them. A time comes when the Red Cross and disaster relief committees, for the good of the entire community, must relinquish such duties so that the normal local agencies shall reassume their responsibilities. In a letter of instructions issued by the National director of the Red Cross to the Ohio Flood Committee is most ably summed up the Red Cross methods. It has been called a classic in relief literature:

"And now comes the true test of our efficiency. Our work is only fairly begun. It must go forward without the inspiration of early days. Family by family we must calmly and sympathetically consider the right thing to be done for each. We are dealing with individual problems, complex, various, infinite. We cannot restore losses. Our relief fund is not an insurance fund. The amount of a family's losses is not an index to the relief which may be afforded it. The only guide for us is the extent of each family's need and its inability to re-establish itself. We must do what is necessary to help the hardest hit family to its feet and start it forward in self-support. Only that. Our funds will not permit more. Thus our work becomes a matter of learning the essential facts. Sympathy and actual knowledge must go hand in hand. In no other way can we discover and perform the particular service for each family which is necessary to give it the right start. And remember that common sense—our own accumulated experience with our fellows in our own lives—is the key which unlocks many perplexities.

"Emergency relief should by this time be closed or reduced to its fag ends. Closing relief stations and stopping the general issue of supplies does not imply that no more food or clothing will be available. Individual families can still be supplied. Closing relief stations however, has two very important results:

"It removes the public, visible sign of relief distribution, which is always abnormal and demoralizing and is a standing temptation and inducement to dependence.

"It clears the slate and allows you to make a new start on a new basis. The routine is broken. Each family which makes application for help after the relief station is closed may be taken up anew and must justify its application by a showing of facts. Many will not reapply.

"In every step and process relief operation must be positive and progressive. 'Marking time' is losing time.

A passive policy means failure. Keep things moving. If we wait for those who are receiving aid, voluntarily to announce that they have enough, we'll never get done. A good many will stop coming, but many will hang on. They have suffered and are discouraged and the relief fund cannot restore their losses. So they will remain hoping and growing more helpless every day. They must be carried forward to independence in spite of themselves.

"All were self-supporting before the disaster. Act on the presumption that all will be self-supporting again and at once. If in occasional instances this cannot be, give such instances kindly consideration and help with a view to hastening independence and stimulating new courage.

"A final residuum of the helpless will remain; those who, from age or ill health or loss of the family wage-earner, may not be able to regain their feet or at best can do so only after months or years of effort. These must be given such kindly temporary help as is possible, but their problems must be left, for final solution, to the regular and ordinary helpful agencies of the community. It is hoped and believed that this residuum will be small. The steady progress of relief operations toward completion, involving, as it does, the future welfare of a large number of sturdy, useful citizens must not be retarded by the effort to restore that smaller, pathetic number of those who cannot respond to the stimulating movement toward a new life.

"The relief movement should be a resistless current carrying all before it, so far as is humanly possible, back to normal existence. The atmosphere should be electric with new energy, new hope and a sense of better days at hand. The distribution of food and the provision of shelter and clothes are necessary, but the inculcation of courage and hope and determination is the secret of permanent success."

CHAPTER XI

THE CHRISTMAS SEAL. ITS ANCESTORS, THE SANITARY FAIR STAMPS. ITS FOREIGN RELATIONS, THE EUROPEAN CHARITY STAMPS. HOW THE SEALS ARE SOLD. A DAVID AGAINST GOLIATH. THE DOUBLE CROSS.

WHEN the American delegates to the Eighth International Red Cross Conference returned from London, in 1907, they were somewhat puzzled as to how the American Red Cross should carry out the agreement made by the societies to take some part in the campaign against tuberculosis.

In those countries, where large numbers of young men are required yearly to do military service, many are rejected because of tuberculosis, or are discharged because it develops shortly after they have entered the army. The aid given to such men, and the safeguarding of their families from infection becomes a patriotic duty that is undertaken by several of the foreign societies. But with us, our army is so small that the relatively few who develop the disease are taken care of by the government and require no Red Cross assistance.

The problem was still unsolved at the time of the annual meeting that year, when, quite unaware of the international resolution, Miss Emily Bissell, secretary of the Delaware Red Cross, appeared before the Central Committee with a little stamp bearing a Red Cross and the words "Merry Christmas and Happy New Year," which that chapter desired to sell for the benefit of anti-tuberculosis work. Whence came the idea, and what was its origin? The little stamp was considered an emigrant and not until some years later was the fact discovered, by means of a Swedish report, that the famous charity stamp was a native of our own land of inventions. We have already seen how much we owe to the Sanitary Commission, but that the charity stamp should prove another inheritance, which, after wandering far afield, returned to us again, was a most unexpected discovery.

In 1862 the first charity stamps were sold at a sanitary fair in Boston. Who was the author of their being is unknown, but that their mission was to raise funds for the aid of the sick and wounded in war made an appropriate, if strange, coincidence that the revival in America was due to the successor of the Sanitary Commission, their originator.

An interesting account of these "Stamps of the United States Sanitary Fairs" is given by Mr. J. W. Scott, in the *American Journal of Philately*. Mr. Scott calls "attention to a neglected series of United States stamps that commemorate national events, and in that respect are not one whit behind their venerable competitors, coins." A stamp that was used in a Brooklyn fair had for its design the American eagle. The venerable bird grasps three arrows in his right claw, and in has left an olive branch. The stamp bears the words, "Brooklyn Sanitary Fair Postage," but its value is not given, and the omission may have been intentional. The printing is in green, on white paper. "The stamp itself," to quote Mr. Scott, "speaks volumes and cannot fail to recall the time when our country was torn by internecine strife. Three years of war had filled our homes with mourning, our hospitals with maimed and crippled soldiers, and exhausted the resources of the national government to relieve their sufferings. It was then that the ladies of the North organized fairs in the different cities to raise money to supply the wounded with comfort and delicacies; to send the convalescents to their homes, and to care for the widows and orphans of the same." At this Brooklyn fair a modern post-office was established. Here a letter could be posted to any part of the world provided it bore upon it, besides the regular government stamps, one of these little labels of the fair. Letters written behind the scenes were to be had by anyone who paid for the fair postage. For the New York Sanitary Fair a stamp beautiful in design and printing was provided. In the centre was an eagle with upraised wings and neck outstretched. He stands upon the United States shield, with a background of flags and stars. These stamps were printed in different colors, according to their value; the blue were ten cents; green twenty cents, and black thirty cents. It is doubtful if any other fair ever proved such a financial success as this great New York Sanitary Fair, which netted $1,200,000 for the commission's relief work. Gavit, a well-known Albany engraver, designed a stamp used for a fair in that city. This is the only one of these stamps, as far as known, that was counterfeited.

While the stamps used in New York all had the eagle as a design, those issued in New England had for their emblem the figures of soldiers or sailors. One of these is oval in shape, printed in green and white, and representing a sailor with a wooden leg, carrying a flag in his hand. The "Stamford" stamp, in brown, pictures a sentry at his post of duty; and a stamp which bears the name of the celebrated engraver Chubbuck, used at Springfield, shows a polite officer raising his hat to two ladies and apparently welcoming them to the fair.

The success of these "sanitary fair" stamps led to their adoption by other charities. One stamp carrying the design of a balloon, is marked "balloon postage."

For many years after the civil war the idea of the charity stamp was lost. As far as we know, it was again brought to light by the issuing of such stamps in Portugal for the benefit of the Red Cross in that country. From there it spread rapidly to other countries of Europe, where it has been sold mainly for the support of anti-tuberculosis institutions. Some of the Swedish charity stamps are quite elaborate in character. On one are pictures of the king and queen; on another St. George is represented slaying the dragon; and the design of a third appears to be Æsculapius grasping a young girl by the hand. A Danish stamp shows a childdren's sanatorium which is maintained by the sale of the stamp. Lately the British Red Cross has issued a series of large shilling stamps illustrating scenes of its assistance of the wounded, which are sold for the benefit of its relief work.

By what path did our little truant stamp return to its native land? One day near Christmas time in 1906, Mr. Jacob Riis received a letter from his old home in Denmark, which, besides the regular postage, was almost covered with new and, to him, mysterious, stamps. Mr. Riis was not the man to let this mystery go unsolved, and it did not take long for him to discover that these stamps were sold to help the Danish people battle against the great white plague. When he was a boy consumption, as tuberculosis was then called, was supposed to be an inherited disease, the touch of whose skeleton hand sealed the fate of its unfortunate victim. One after another, six brothers of Mr. Riis had died, a sacrifice to the ignorance of those early days. He evidently owed his escape to the fact that while still a boy he was sent to America and thus taken out of dangerously infected surroundings. What a deep interest he felt in the overcoming of tuberculosis can well be imagined. In the *Outlook* he wrote of the little stamp "The Christmas stamp is not good for postage every other way it is good—for the man who buys it and puts it on his letter; for the clerk who cancels it with a glad thought for the little waifs with every whack; for the postman that delivers the letter with a smile as good and bright as Christmas itself. The proof that they like it is this: that they refuse to a man to take anything for their work. They all wanted to help. The thought itself with this power of setting everybody to thinking of a great wrong that can only be righted through everybody's thinking of it, deserves a place. What else is the tuberculosis scourge than such a wrong. Nothing in all the world is better proven to-day than that it is a preventable disease, and therefore needless. And yet in our own country it goes on year after year killing an army of one hundred and fifty thousand persons, and desolating countless homes in which half a million men and women are always wearily dragging themselves to graves dug by this single enemy. What I want to know is why we cannot here borrow a leaf from Santa Claus' Danish year book and do as they have done? I am pleading for the half million poor souls all over the land whose faces are set to-day towards an inevitable grave, because of ignorance, needless ignorance, and for the friends who grieve with and for them."

This article of Mr. Riis' fell into Miss Bissell's hands, and Delaware needed funds for its anti-tuberculosis work. From the Danish stamp on Mr. Riis' letter, the need in Delaware, and Miss Bissell's initiative sprang our Red Cross Christmas Seal.

For the first few years it was called a "stamp." In spite of Shakespeare's query, "What's in a name?", there is a great deal in a name's influence on the popular mind. The word "stamp" unfortunately led many persons to suppose the little messengers of good-will were sufficient for postage on letters. The Post-office Department had given the small stamps a courteous welcome, but it positively declined to allow them to take the place of its own revenue producers. As a consequence, not a few additional letters and parcels decorated with the Red Cross emblem, but minus Uncle Sam's stamps, found their way to the dead letter office; this led to official regulations that all Christmas stamps must be placed on the back of letters and packages. Some one's happy inspiration changed the name from "stamp" to "seal," to insure the proper location of the offending little messenger.

The charter of the American Red Cross places the duty upon it of mitigating the sufferings caused by pestilence and the devising of measures to prevent the same. No more dangerous and insidious pestilence exists than that which is called the great white plague. It invades the palace as well as the hovel. It deforms the child as well as slays the man, and no country or nation is free from its ravages. A century past our ancestors wrote of it as the "wasting sickness;" half a century ago men called it consumption; and to-day we give it the more scientific name of tuberculosis. But call it what we will it is ever the same dread disease, so widely scattered and so slow in the consummation of its results that it requires not only the skill of specialists to combat it, but the earnest co-operation of the entire nation, rich and poor, young and old.

It is in the unexpected rôle of educator that the Red Cross seal has played a most important part. Public interest in it was first aroused by competitions held for the selection of an appropriate design. Competitors by hundreds sent their productions to the Red Cross. These were of all possible kinds, some from the brush of the artist, some from the pen of the skilled draughtsman, some from the untaught hands of children, and some the crude products of paper, paste and scissors. After a weeding-out process the best were selected and exhibited at the Corcoran Art Gallery, at Washington. Such artists as Frank Miller and Paul Bartlett gave their services as members of the jury on awards. It was interesting to note that the purity of the conventional design appealed more to the artist than to the popular fancy. The public likes better the seal which arouses its imagination by the face of a merry Santa Claus, or the laden boughs of a Christmas tree. The earlier stamp designs were composed of the Red Cross surrounded by holly in conventional form. But the seals of the last few years have depended upon the benevolent face or form of Santa Claus to enhance their popularity.

To increase its educational value children in the schools have been encouraged to copy its design, or to write essays on its purpose. This education, radiated out from school-room into the homes, so that inquiry as to the disease to be combated followed the interest aroused by the seal and added to its usefulness in extending knowledge.

Its astonishing success in the raising of funds led to imitation, and stamps and seals of many varieties were launched upon communities only to meet with failure, or but small success. To design a seal and put it on the market is one thing; to sell it quite another. Organization machinery and advertising are as necessary in the sale of the seal as in the successful sale of any article of commerce. Fortunately, throughout the country an active interest in anti-tuberculosis work was being aroused. Innumerable state and local committees already existed; and the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis—an excellent society with a regrettably long name—was stimulating this interest and increasing local associations. There was, therefore, an organization already in existence, and by means of this organization the sales have been carried on. Probably no other national charity has ever received such an amount of gratuitous advertising. Clever cartoonists of great daily papers pictured the gaunt skeleton of tuberculosis stalking, with death-dealing steps, through city or town, while toward the combat advanced the valiant Red Cross knight, from whose attacking spear floated the Christmas seal; or jolly old Santa Claus himself appeared, every parcel in his pack labeled with his own kindly face, while he utters the admonition, "Don't forget the Christmas Seal on every gift." Poets burst into song and verse to praise its virtues. Periodicals gave pages to explain its purpose and increase its sale. Billboards displayed large reproductions in Christmas colors. Motors with banners and pretty girls paraded the streets to advertise its goodly work. Schools have been awarded prizes for the largest sale. In Ohio the twelve communities which sold the greatest number per capita were each awarded a visiting nurse for a month, by the State Committee. Moving-picture films were pressed into service, a romantic story woven around the seal, and an unsuspected lesson taught. There can be few to-day among our many millions of people who do not know the little seal and understand its object. Great banks and commercial houses send it out on their holiday mail, while the little newsboy hands out his penny and is happy because he has a chance given him to help. Everybody helps. Old "Scrooge" himself, had he been here, could not have kept out of the spirit of it all, for was not "Tiny Tim" a victim of this cruel plague?

Is it to be wondered, then, that during the last seven years over two hundred and thirty million seals have been sold, and over $2,300,000 thereby raised for active work, not counting the indirect aid of such an immense circulation in spreading knowledge of the campaign and arousing public interest. Ninety per cent of the profits on the sale of the seals belongs to the community in which they are sold. The remaining ten per cent goes to the Red Cross to pay for the printing of a yearly issue of more than one hundred million seals, hundreds of thousands of posters and other advertising matter. Any profit that may remain of this ten per cent after the expenses are paid is divided between the Red Cross and the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

State associations by means of the seal have been called into existence and maintained; others which were moribund have been revived by its aid and taken on new life and activities. Scores of day camps, on the roofs of hospitals in large cities, or on remodeled ferry-boats, or formed of tents in pleasant groves, are carried on by means of the little seal, and bring back health and happiness to multitudes of men, women and children. Sanitaria, dispensaries, open-air schools, educational exhibits, visiting nurses, and countless other means for combating the white plague, owe their existence to the penny seal with its emblem of the Red Cross. A tiny David, with but a simple sling, is fighting the battle against this powerful and horrible Goliath of destruction.

That sometimes the purpose of the seal is not fully understood is shown by a letter that found its way to the Red Cross office, addressed to the "Red Cross Seal":

"While looking over a paper i found an advertisement of the red Cross Seel staiting that it was Good for Consumption and other deseases i wish that you would please send me a bottle and also the price so in case i Need more i Will No What to send send me the mederson i will see that you get the money if i Know what it Cost i cud send the money at once please dont fail to send it at once please let me hear from you at once."

Even if this was aid the Red Cross could not give, the letter carried a pathetic appeal to an organization that stands for the mitigating of such suffering as it indicated and the prevention of its cause.

The German Red Cross, which has accomplished more for the anti-tuberculosis campaign than any of the other societies, first used for this department of its peace activities the emblem of the double cross, which is generally accepted as the special symbol of anti-tuberculosis organizations. An emblem that is necessarily associated with disease, even if it means an effort to suppress the evil, is not as attractive a symbol for the Christmas messenger as one which throughout the world is recognized as the insignia of helpful humanity and good will towards man. For this reason it is the Red Cross, and not the double cross, that is used upon our seal.

The American Red Cross owes a patriotic duty to the country to help to fight and overcome any pestilence that endangers the health and happiness of the people. The pure democracy of the Red Cross enables the waters of great tributaries to flow in unison with those of the smallest spring through the broad channel of the little Christmas seal. None are too rich to give; none too poor. For in this all-embracing service every hand may be outstretched to do its share.

CHAPTER XII

THE SICK IN SMALL COMMUNITIES. THE KOENIGSBERG SYSTEM. BEGINNINGS OF A GREAT NATIONAL WORK. HUMOR AND PATHOS IN THE TOWN AND COUNTRY NURSING LIFE. A SUGGESTION.

AN English bishop once said, "You cannot teach men about heaven until you make earth more like heaven." This effort to make earth more like heaven is a marked feature of man's present-day labors for his fellow-men. No longer are the efforts to mitigate the sufferings of the sick confined within hospital walls, or to the ministrations of the private nurse. Visiting nurse organizations by the hundreds have been established in our cities, and in some of the towns and villages. Even more than the people of the cities, those of our small communities need the service of the visiting nurse. Without hospitals or dispensaries near at hand, forced to rely for trained aid upon the infrequent calls of a busy or remote country doctor, there is untold suffering, and doubtless many deaths, that the ministrations of the trained nurse would prevent. The ignorance of uninstructed mothers often means years of suffering for the children, and possibly the continuation of ill-health through future generations.

In Germany there has been some interesting co-operative work carried on by the working man's insurance and the Red Cross. Country conditions are very different from those of the cities. The countryman is naturally narrower in his views than his city brother. He distrusts innovations, fears new expenses, or that he may be deceived. Who was there to convince the laborer in the poor rural village of the advantages of the insurance law? He paid his taxes to insure against illness, or accident; but when he became ill what was he to do, and where was he to find the insurance doctor? He distrusts the doctors and the hospitals in the distant town, and prefers to die in the only spot he knows. So many were the difficulties that were associated with sick insurance for these rural communities that the government legislators left to the discretion of local authorities the application of the law.

The officials of the district of Koenigsberg, in East Prussia, determined that its people should profit by this sick insurance law. But to make its operation a success the assistance of the women's branch of the Red Cross was sought. This branch, of which the German Empress is the head, has its members in all the cities, in every village, in the great and small chateaux of the country, in the homes of the manufacturer and those of the workman, of great proprietors and small laborers. These would know how to accomplish what officials and regulations failed to do,—"to carry the benefits of these social laws to the most remote cabin and to the humblest of the poor." Supported on the one side by public-spirited officials, energetic and faithful men, and on the other by the sincere self-abnegation of the women of the Red Cross, the plan developed, and like a spider web covered the country, establishing throughout all the district its organization of aid for the sick and injured.

The district of Koenigsberg includes twenty-three parishes. Each parish has a Red Cross delegate, and by her side a Red Cross "sister," as a trained nurse is called in Germany, both living in their circuit. From the parishes were formed the eleven divisions of the insurance doctors, who treat gratuitously those insured and their families. The houses of the doctors, four little hospitals, fifteen Red Cross sister stations, a small home for incurables, and a first-aid post are scattered over the district in such a manner that it is possible in a short time to bring aid to any unfortunate sufferer, or to take him to the nearest hospital. The geographic situation of the large city of Koenigsberg, and the numerous railroads and the many good roads extending from the capital out into the country, help to make this plan a success. The insurance administration realizes the reduction of the cost of recovery by having near at hand the doctor, the ambulance and the nurse, and the demands for invalid pensions decrease as the nurses discover the seeds of disease in the laborer's home. Both insurer and insured profit economically by the work of the Red Cross. All the Red Cross nurses receive two years' training at the mother-house in connection with the large hospital of charity at Koenigsberg. There are six hundred nurses and two hundred and twenty novices in the mother-house and outside stations. These stations of the nurses are situated in the larger villages of the district, in little houses rented or loaned by charity. Each station consists of a store-room for first-aid supplies and the home of the nurse. Almost every station has its little carriage and horse for her tour of visits. Those who are able to do so, call at the station, while the more seriously ill the sister visits in their homes. She reports to the insurance doctor all cases of illness she discovers, teaches the household simple hygiene, brings about cleanliness and order in the home, cares for the baby and mothers the family. The nurse finds a supporter and a guardian in the lady delegate of the Red Cross, generally the wife of the pastor or some official. This delegate transmits to the sister the administrative orders of the Red Cross or the mother-house, and provides for her what is necessary for the station and the poor—in brief, the delegate is the representative manager of the Red Cross in the parish.

In the four remote corners of the district the Red Cross established four small hospitals. It bought little farms, or separate houses, and remodeled them so as to provide space for twelve beds and lodging for the sisters, a store-room for supplies, a dispensary, operating room, kitchen and bathroom. Besides, each hospital has a garden for vegetables and a stable for domestic animals for the purpose of economy. The nurse at the station, with an assistant nurse and a maid, takes charge of the running of each little hospital.

The Red Cross Association pays only the interest on the capital used for the purchase of these small hospitals or stations and for the expenses of the sisters at the mother-house The insurance bureau pays for each insured member who is ill twenty-five cents a day, and this is enough to provide funds to maintain the rest of the work.

Whether or not the American Red Cross can ever effect such a system in this country is doubtful, because of the lack of sick insurance laws that have enabled the German Red Cross to accomplish this. But there can be no doubt of the great benefit of such a system to the rural community in which it is situated.

Some three years ago, through Miss Lillian Wald, of the New York Henry Street Settlement, Mr. Jacob H. Schiff became deeply interested in the subject of rural nursing. He had seen the value of the daily ministrations of the city visiting nurse and realized the even greater need for this service in the country and small towns. In his desire to assist in bringing to these communities such aid, Mr. Schiff turned to the Red Cross, of whose Board of Incorporators he is a member. He realized that outside of the nurses' own associations there exists no other organization that comes in closer touch with the trained nurses of the country. Furthermore, he believed that such a work could best be carried on under the supervision of a strong national organization. He offered to the Red Cross a special endowment of $100,000, the income of which was to be devoted to the administration of a town and country nursing service, if it would undertake the work. The generous offer was accepted, and a new piece of activity of the American Red Cross inaugurated.

Our small towns and rural communities are awakening to the benefit of the visiting nurse work. Health is an economic asset to any community. The economic and general welfare of the individual, the community and the nation depend largely upon the prevention of disease. A close relationship exists between poverty and ill-health. Many industrial concerns have recognized the inefficiency caused by sickness and provide visiting nurses for their employees. Insurance companies who utilize these nurses have done so because such service prolongs the lives of their policyholders. The system adopted for the Town and Country Nursing Department of the Red Cross provides for a corps of graduate trained nurses who have received a special post-graduate course of four months to fit them for this service. These courses, which are given at a number of institutions, embrace lectures on social problems and work, on municipal sanitation, the application of preventive medicine in nursing, food economics and the principles of public health nursing. In connection with the theoretical training the nurse receives her practical experience with some visiting nurse association. At the head of this Town and Country Nursing department is a superintendent, and with her are associated one or more supervisors. These are all nurses who have taken special courses for their particular duties.

One of the corps of nurses is assigned to a community in which a local committee or organization undertakes the responsibility for her service and work and which affiliates with the Town and Country Nursing Service, accepting its regulations. The Red Cross assumes no local financial responsibilities, but it meets the expenses of general supervision, including the visits of the supervising nurse, provides the nurse's insignia pendant and the various record cards she uses.

There are a number of advantages to local committees in such an affiliation. Specially trained nurses are obtained, with a responsible organization back of them which is constantly studying the needs and requirements of such communities. The experience of associations thus mutually affiliated benefits all in the solution of similar problems. The nurse isolated from others of her profession receives by means of this affiliation helpful suggestions and feels an inspiration to live up to the high standards of the national organization. She wears a simple blue uniform of wash materials, and around her neck, suspended by a silver chain, the insignia of the Red Cross on a white ground, surrounded by a blue border on which appear the words, "Town and Country Nursing Service." Her uniform and the insignia she wears prove not only a protection to the nurse, but are often the means of identification because of which many acts of kindness are extended to her. Her duties are those of the city visiting nurse, but they cover a more varied field. She becomes the good angel of the community, guarding its health, instructing its women and children in the simple laws of hygiene, as well as caring for its sick and injured. Patients that can afford to pay for the nurse's visits do so to the committee; but the sick poor are given her services without charge.

Over forty of these Red Cross town and country nurses are now stationed in various small communities throughout the country. Village improvement associations, Red Cross chapters, health leagues, corporations, industrial concerns, as well as local nursing associations, are employing these nurses. Town governments, local and county health and educational authorities are appropriating funds towards their salaries in increasing numbers.

One of the Town and Country nurses employed by a large mining company in Pennsylvania, lives in a model town where the majority of the people are Slavs and Hungarians. Her work in their homes has so won their faith and confidence that she says, "My duties are varied. I am just as liable to be called for an unfortunate goose or chicken as for the baby. I have already successfully mended the wings of three geese. An early morning call came a short time ago to visit a home where a baby had just arrived. I found the baby swaddled and bound with a wide red, white and blue ribbon. Upon asking for an explanation I was told the other children were born in the old country and were Slavs, but that this one being born here was an American. Hence the display of colors."

"Better Baby Contests" are gotten up by this nurse; lectures in Slavic or Hungarian by physicians arranged for; camp-fire girls are taught something of the care of the sick, of symptoms and the isolation of contagious diseases, and one evening in the week is devoted by the nurse to first-aid instructions to the Co-operative Boys. This nurse's life is a happy one, as her work is carried on in an ideal welfare town, with grateful and appreciative patients on every side. The services of such a nurse are an economic asset to the company. An official of one of the largest corporations in the country said that the visiting nurse service extended to its employees means a saving of twenty-five dollars a day to the corporation.

Among the town and country nurses are to be found several county school nurses, sometimes partly supported by the county school board and the commissioners' court, as is one in Alabama. Her county comprises seven hundred and twenty square miles, with ninety-one school districts. Notifying the teacher or trustee of a certain district a few days in advance of her visit she asks them to announce a lecture in the school building the evening of the day. In the morning she examines the pupils, inspects the premises and gives a talk to the children. Before the school is dismissed she hands each child who shows any physical defect a note to the parents and tells the children to urge their parents to attend the lecture as she will explain the meaning of adenoids and kindred subjects. This secures a good audience of interested persons. After a short talk on the conditions of the children she gives a simple lecture on hygiene and preventable diseases. The next day there follows another talk to mothers on the care and feeding of the babies. Wherever possible she organizes a branch of the County Improvement Association, which includes work along the lines of sanitation, beautification and school improvement. Part of the nurse's time is given to visiting the sick of each school district and instructing the families in their care.

To steal a few leaves from the diaries of one or two of these Town and Country nurses may better paint their many daily duties than the duller pages of reports. A nurse from the mountain district writes:

"Yesterday I went to town to take a patient. The patient was a man with appendicitis, very poor, with five little children who had lost their mother. We got along nicely; put him on a cot in the baggage car. Although the journey was two hundred miles he was not so very tired when he got there, but think of having to take people in that condition so far. This is the county seat, and should have a little hospital of its own. County and town could each give something for its support, and the mines pay so much a day for each employe cared for. At such a hospital the visiting nurses should have their office.

"One thing about my staying here which seems encouraging is that when I came everybody said this work could not be put on foot. Now everybody says if I stay I will win out. I am willing to stay. I like to do things other people say cannot be done. My fighting blood is up. The fact that I am from the mountains and a Southerner puts me in good favor.

"Early this morning I was called out to a case, and then the colored doctor and I rode a mile and a half over the mountains and examined thirty-five children in the school. I stopped on my way home to see two that were sick. This afternoon I picked up a little girl on the street, who had fallen and fractured the femur. We carried her to the doctor's office, set the limb, and then I went home with the child and saw that she was put properly to bed. The house was one of the poorest and dirtiest in the town, so if I can get them to clean up I will be glad. I used the extra school cards for the colored school, and need more for a private school I have also been asked to visit.

"I rode over to the city last week to arrange for a trachoma clinic. I have had to take this matter up with various authorities, and I have gotten everybody here interested in the trachoma situation. We have now had the specialist and operated on thirteen cases. Next week there will be fourteen. All cases refusing treatment are dismissed from the school. I established a temporary hospital in two empty rooms that the owner kindly loaned us, and each child brought its cot and bedding. I have not done a great deal of work in the mines lately, for I have been so busy here in town; but this month I am going to try to do more for them. The poor man I took for the operation has been sent back, as nothing could be done for him. I met the train and took him to a friend's; but he wanted to go home to his children, so last Sunday six men started over here with him on a cot and carried him four miles of the way; six other men from his little village came and met them and carried him the rest of the way. Just think of being carried nine miles on a cot in this rough country! But there was no other way to make it except in a two-horse wagon."

The busy day of one of the nurses situated in a village where no exceptional features exist gives an excellent description of the helpful service of such a nurse:

"The telephone rang insistently The sun had a little before brightened my room and I was already preparing for my day's work.

" 'Yes! Mrs. Allen, did you say? Oh, I hope it won't prove as serious as you fear. Get Mr. Allen as comfortably fixed as you can, and I will be there in a few moments.'

"The early summons sent me scurrying off for my wraps and emergency kit. Out to the stable I hurried, and saddled old Dan, my ancient but faithful steed, that the children have christened 'Baby,' because he has a nurse to take care of him. Off in the frosty morning I cantered, my black bag at my side, with all that was necessary for first-aid until the doctor came. Poor old Deacon Allen! He fell on the slippery steps as he started to the barn to water the stock at sunrise; and as I entered the kitchen I found him propped up on the floor, with a broken bone in the lower leg. A few strong shingles made a temporary splint, and then, with many moans on his part, many sighs on hers, and many words of encouragement on mine, Mrs. Allen and I got him comfortably settled on a lounge to await the doctor's arrival. After a hasty breakfast, which I helped prepare, Mrs. Allen slipped into my hand twenty-five cents. 'It isn't enough,' she said, 'we are poor, but self-respecting folk. We want to pay for what we can and do not ask charity from anyone.'

"At the other end of the village, two miles away, was the village school, and as this was one of my school visiting days I trotted away on Dan up the long, broad street. The first order on the program called for the tooth-brush drill, teaching the children a valuable insurance against dentist bills. It was amusing to see how they entered into it as if it was a sort of game. The children were expecting my visit, and faces were aglow from vigorous scrubbings, while the hair lay plastered flat on the small boys' heads, or hung in neat braids down the backs of the little girls. It took some time to teach the boys that a small clean circle, with the nose as the centre of the circumference, framed by a border of unwashed surface, and a total ignoring of neck and ears, was not a satisfactory result as far as cleanliness went, and that tidy hair-brushing extended more than two inches back from the forehead; for it is hard for a boy to remember he has a neck and ears or a back to his head when the days are far too short for all he wants to do.

"As the tooth-brush drill went on I noticed one of the smaller girls was very inattentive. After the class had finished I remarked on the girl's manner to the teacher. 'She has been that way all the morning and I can't do anything with her,' was the reply. I called the little one to me, felt her feverish forehead, and looked into a suspiciously red little throat. 'There are signs of danger here and I will take the child home. The doctor must see her immediately. Put her books out of the children's way. If diphtheria develops they must be burned and the school fumigated,' I cautioned the teacher. This school work I think is second in importance only to that for the babies. Through simple talks I teach the children the basic principles of hygiene, and I keep a close watch for poor eyesight or other troubles from which children often suffer unnoticed by their elders. Last week I took small Benny to town to be fitted for the glasses that opened a new world to his near-sighted eyes. Yesterday there was a sadder visit to the city to go with a poor man from the quarry, whose arm had been crushed in an accident. I stayed with him and encouraged him at the hospital where it was amputated.

"Finished with my school inspection work, next came the baby clinic. My committee have fitted up two rooms for me in the centre of the village, and here twice a week the mothers who have tiny babies gather for advice and aid. The doctor also comes whenever he can. There were twenty-three mothers and as many babies on hand this morning. The women formed into line and I went at once to the scales, undressed the babies and proceeded to the regular weighing process that tells the doctor and myself how the babies are thriving. Some of the youngsters did not enjoy the performance, and in a short time there was a chorus under way that would have done justice to a full orchestra of cubist musicians —or whatever corresponds in music to the cubist in art. Mrs. Koralski was kindly called to account by the good doctor when her nine-months'-old baby tipped the scales at barely twelve pounds. After the others were gone I kept her to show her how to feed and bathe the feeble morsel of humanity. We have gained the confidence of these mothers and their thanks are very touching. They go away with babies whose chances for life have been multiplied ten-fold by these simple instructions. One of the women stopped me this morning to tell me that my work in what I call the 'Friendly Hour Club' was fine, for her daughter had 'fixed up a mustard plaster for her father almost as good as yours, miss.'

"On my way home I ran across the fields to old Mammy Magruder's cottage to give her a bit of cheer and a jar of jelly one of my committee had sent her.

"The afternoon work was not so heavy. There were several sick patients to visit. Tony Salvatore, poor boy, was one of them. He is slowly dying of tuberculosis, and so grateful for the little I can do, though I have made the family and the boy realize the care that must be taken against infection from the disease. On my tour of visits I noticed a series of farmhouses, one above the other on the sloping hillside. One of these houses drew its water from a well driven near the brook below. I met the owner at the gate, and in some trepidation told him that I had seen something that meant danger to him, and asked if I might talk it over with him. It proved easy to tell my story, for not long ago Tom, his eldest boy, had died of typhoid fever. I gained an ally in the farmer, who promptly determined that he and his neighbors would look into this question of their wells and the drainage of their farms.

"My day's work was nearly over, but I could not go home until I had met my boys' brigade assembled under the big elm tree in the centre of the town. Into three groups they were divided, and under each group was placed the charge of cleaning up a particular street. They went at it with enthusiasm, for this week's prize given by the committee is a regular league baseball and bat. It has been a busy day, like most of my days, for there is much work to be done; but though tired, I go to bed happy with the thought of what has been accomplished."

This new field of Red Cross activity is but in its infancy and it has possibilities of wonderful development. Though we have not the sick insurance system in this country, one of our large insurance companies pays fifty cents to the Red Cross for each of these nurses' visits to their policyholders. It would seem as if some such system as that in Germany might be worked out in some of our progressive communities. In a village or small town that employs a Red Cross nurse and that is remote from a hospital a Red Cross station might be established, in charge of the nurse; such a station to consist of a small house, one room provided with a few beds and an emergency equipment; another arranged for a little dispensary; and the rest used for the nurses and caretakers' home. This Red Cross station, under a local committee and with the co-operation of the local physician, would become the centre of the health activities of the little community. There is much to work out in the details if such a plan is undertaken, and this is only a suggestion; but the benefits of to-day are the visions of yesterday made perfect.

CHAPTER XIII

ELEVATING THE NATIONAL CONSCIENCE. THE MACEDONIAN CRY, "COME OVER AND HELP US." MESSINA AND ITS HORRORS. IN THE FAR EAST. FACING DEATH TO STAY THE PNEUMONIC PLAGUE. FAMINE PICTURES. FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE AND INDIA. FOOD FOR MILLIONS BY DRAINAGE AND RECLAMATION. THE WORLD THE RED CROSS FIELD.

WHY the standard set for the individual conscience is higher than that set for the national conscience is a mystery. "Thou shalt not steal" pronounces the man who thieves a criminal; but the nations may rob their fellow nations with little or no reproach. "Thou shalt not kill" applies to man, and he who breaks the law is punished as a murderer; but the great powers of the world slaughter men by thousands and glory in their victories.

Centuries ago man recognized his duty to his fellow-man. Not only were laws enforced to protect the individual and safeguard human liberty, but the unwritten moral law of conscience makes man responsible for the welfare of his fellow-man. The countless philanthropic organizations that exist for the benefit of the sick or unfortunate, and which are maintained by private benevolence, testify to the upward trend of man's ethical standard. But how slowly have nations advanced along the same altruistic line? Has their attitude toward their fellow nations been that of selfish interest, or that of broad, generous sympathy? If the world in the future is to be spared the appalling conditions that exist to-day it must depend upon the awakening of a nobler conscience among the nations.

It is in the elevation of the national conscience that the Red Cross plays a remarkable rôle. Arbitration courts and international laws, with their promise of impartial justice, will find an easier road to the temple of universal peace where mercy has blazed the way, for "earthly power doth then show likest God's when mercy seasons justice." Through the channel of the Red Cross the nation answers the old cry, "Come over into Macedonia and help us," and in helping Macedonia itself rises to a finer realization of the brotherhood of nations. Within the last decade more than two score times has this old cry echoed to our shores, and never once has the Red Cross failed to answer. To many of the countries of Europe, to Central and South America, to the "Lady of the Snows" on our northern border, to the Far East, and to the remote islands of the seas, have gone the help and sympathy of the American people under the flag of the Red Cross.

Time marks with a blood-red finger certain days as he turns the pages of history. December 28, 1908, was one of these. A shudder of horror swept round the earth as the awful story of Messina, of Reggio and the other towns of Sicily and southern Italy became known. No pen, however graphic, can describe the appalling catastrophe. To the fair cities of the Mediterranean from every quarter of the globe there rushed a tidal wave of sympathy and help. Far and wide in our own land went the Red Cross appeal for earthquake-shattered Italy, and prompt and generous was the response. Hospital aid for the pitiful multitudes of crushed and mangled victims was too remote for our active participation, but the well organized Italian Red Cross immediately established sixteen temporary hospitals and these, by a donation of over three hundred thousand dollars, the American Red Cross helped to maintain. The railroad service to the south was completely disorganized, and Sicily, moreover, was an island. These conditions led Mr. Lloyd Griscom, our American Ambassador to Italy, and a committee of prominent Americans in Rome, to decide to charter a relief ship. On the receipt of Mr. Griscom's cable announcing this plan the American

Red Cross accepted the hundred thousand dollar financial responsibility for the expedition. More than half this sum was expended in a few hours for medical outfit, clothing and provisions, especial attention being paid to the selection of food for little children Under the command of Lieutenant Commander Reginald R. Belknap, United States Naval Attaché at Rome, the "Bayern" set sail January seventh from Civita Vecchia, flying the Red Cross flag, one of the many ships of mercy the American Red Cross has sent out to scenes of trouble and distress.

The Ambassador and members of the American Committee were in charge of funds and supplies. Three doctors and eighteen nurses formed the medical department. All along the stricken coast sailed the "Bayern," dropping her precious cargo by the way. First, at Messina, then on to Reggio and Catonia, up into the mountain villages back of Giardini and Taormina, went American Red Cross messengers with help to the poor little communities that were at first forgotten. Palermo, though not a sufferer itself, was aided because of the throngs of refugees and injured that had flocked to that city. The doctors and nurses were landed where there was the greatest need for their services. Funds were contributed to hospitals and committees. Canvas for tents, blankets, shawls, overcoats, and other articles of clothing, were distributed by the thousands at every place. To the local authorities who expressed to the representatives of the American Red Cross the heartfelt gratitude for this aid Captain Belknap replied that it was "a privilege to the American people to relieve in some small measure the distressing needs of this beautiful land and its people in the time of sorrow." The "Bayern" did not go to Syracuse, but through Mr. Bayard Cutting, Jr., contributions of money were sent there, part of which was turned over for the good work of Miss Katherine B. Davis, who chanced to be at Syracuse, and who was made there the special representative of the American Red Cross. In organizing the relief work Miss Davis found herself with only a little American flag, while on the walls of the relief committee's room hung several large flags of other countries. "So," relates Miss Davis, "I just put the little American flag in the very centre of them all." When one reads of what Miss Davis accomplished, the place of the little flag does not seem unjustified.

"Yesterday and to-day a Russian and an English warship have brought here six hundred of the wounded and more are expected to-morrow. It is like what it must be after a battle. Many of them are horribly mutilated. There are no hospital accommodations, and you cannot buy a ready-made garment in the town. There is only one trained nurse in town—an English girl, who escaped in her night-dress from Messina. She is a heroine and is working day and night assisting with the amputations. I am afraid she will break down. I was with an English woman last night who had to have both legs amputated at one o'clock this morning. Her husband, two children, a brother and a sister were killed. But I cannot stop to write you to-night of the many pathetic cases I have seen. We have four thousand refugees, one thousand of whom are seriously wounded. The German Red Cross, of Berlin, and the Italian, from Brescia, got here on Monday of this week, the 11th. They have taken over the barracks hospital, the worst of all, and such a transformation! They are doing fine work, with splendid fellows in charge. It was unspeakably horrible until they came. After the first few days in the hospitals I found I could do better work in helping the refugees to help themselves, and soon started the women from Messina to making clothing.

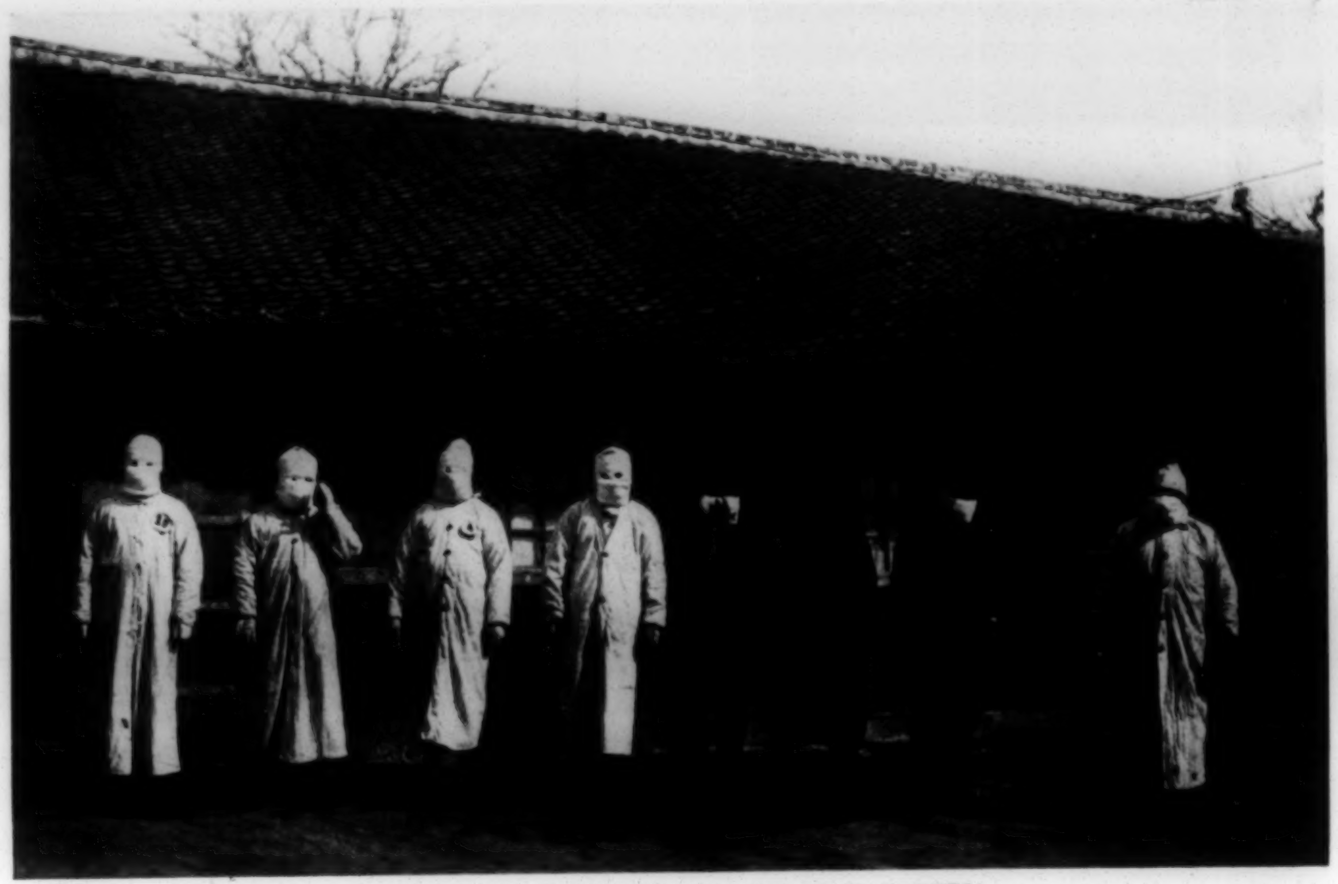
"Fortunately, there is a sewing machine agency here, and the Mayor of the town is of the right sort. He placed a room in the Municipio at my disposal, and an alderman—or whatever corresponds to alderman—who speaks some English, selected the women for me, and I pay them a franc and a half a day. We now have sixty-eight employed, in three different places. No ready-made garments could be purchased in the town, and the need for clothing was extreme. I soon used up my own money and what I could collect from people at the hotel, but, fortunately, Bayard Cutting, Jr., came on Wednesday, and liked the work so much that he gave me $600 from the relief funds to pay wages, and has had me appointed the Red Cross representative here.

"I have persuaded the Mayor to start relief work for the men, road building or what not, he to furnish the tools and oversight, and we (the American Red Cross) will pay the wages. We begin tomorrow. In short, I am organizing all I can on the good Charity Organization Society plan of making the able-bodied needy work for what they can get.

"My personal impression of the situation is that the worst is yet to come, when the temporary relief ceases.

"I shall never forget the horrors I have seen and heard, and I was not at Messina!"

The American Red Cross turns with tender memories to the work of one of its special representatives in the field of Italian relief. Bayard Cutting, Jr., delicate in health, took no thought for himself in his devotion to the work. The morning of January second found him already at Messina, where amidst heart-rending scenes of misery he labored day after day, journeying from place to place, ever active, ever busy, accomplishing much with his fine ability and his sympathetic nature. In the spring he returned to America and to Washington to render an account of his stewardship. There he was taken seriously ill, but he was not content until every portion of his report was completed and in the Red Cross archives. Whether or not this service shortened his noble life we do not know; but this we do



FIGHTING THE PNEUMONIC PLAGUE IN MANCHURIA

know, Bayard Cutting carried the Red Cross banner of humanity with the spirit of the old knight whose name he bore, "sans peur et sans reproche."

Resisting the temptation to linger among the many features of Red Cross work in Italy, only a few more may be dwelt on briefly. When part of our Government's relief appropriations and part of our Red Cross contributions were utilized for the purchase and transportation of building materials for cottages, it was the American Red Cross which provided funds and sent master carpenters from the United States to direct, under Captain Belknap's supervision, the construction of more than two thousand of these little houses, a hospital, a small hotel, school-houses, a home for the aged, and a little church in whose chancel five cottage windows filled with red glass were formed in the shape of the cross. The good bishop called this "the Church of the Holy Cross." In appreciation of funds given to an Italian rehabilitation committee for the purchase of tools and sewing machines a silver tablet was sent the American Red Cross bearing, in Latin, a quotation from the Roman historian, Velleius Paterculus, "Your bounty repaired the catastrophe not merely of the citizens but of entire cities." To the American Red Cross the Italian Red Cross sent a gold medal typifying the relief work and expressing its thanks for the sympathetic co-operation, and to one of the American officers a beautiful reproduction in gold of the old civic victor's crown was presented, in the name of the Government and the Italian people, by the Secretary of State, with a graceful letter of appreciation "of the highly generous work inspired and accomplished with such intelligent love."

[Gifts and decorations to individuals who have taken part in relief work have since then been disapproved by the American Red Cross, which prefers to confer its own medals of merit for unremunerated service.]

At Palmi there has been built with Italian gifts the beautiful Agricultural Orphanage, endowed from relief funds by the American Red Cross to care for one hundred orphan boys and to teach them to be intelligent and practical self-supporting citizens of their country. As a lasting token of our sympathy for Italy in the hour of sorrow, this orphanage stands, and over its portals appear in English the words, "American Red Cross Orphanage."

We must pass by earthquakes at Valparaiso, at Kingston, in Costa Rica, Turkey and Portugal; floods in France, Serbia and Mexico; fires at Colon, burning forests in Canada, sealing fleet disasters in Newfoundland, Japanese and Russian famines, Armenian massacres, Balkan wars, and Nicaraguan revolutions. In all of these and many more has the American Red Cross held out a helping hand, filled with the generous and practical sympathy of our people. Remembering the funds contributed for our sick and wounded soldiers during the war with Spain, by the Portuguese Red Cross, whose sympathies must have been with its neighbor, but whose spirit was truly that of the Red Cross, it was a pleasure to receive from Lisbon after an earthquake in its vicinity a picture of a group of little homes with the inscription underneath, "The houses that the American Red Cross has aided to be built by the Portuguese Red Cross."

Into Manchuria let us follow our Red Cross on to a field of new activity. The pneumonic plague, a strange, unknown pestilence, far more deadly than the bubonic plague, had broken out. Corrupting the lungs, the object of its sudden attack, it brought certain death in a few short hours. China, alarmed, begged for an international commission for its suppression, and the State Department turned to the Red Cross. An expert on plagues was not on its list, but an expert on plagues it would and did find. Dr. Richard P. Strong, who was in the Philippines, and who had successfully fought the bubonic plague, with his assistant, Dr. Oscar Teague, gave their services for this dangerous but most important mission. For five week before the international commission met at Mukden these courageous men studied the plague, working in costumes like Misericordia Brothers, and in addition with four inches of cotton wadding over mouth and nose to exclude the fatal bacilli. When the international commission met, Dr. Strong was the leading spirit. Supported by the Chinese Government, the measures proposed by the commission were put into operation and this terrible scourge suppressed. Had the coolies from Shantung, who go for the summer harvesting up to Manchuria, brought it back to famine-stricken central China, it would have spread through the country like fire through stubble, pushed on to the Philippines, Korea and Japan, and perhaps invaded America from our western coast. Countless lives saved by the courage and by the earnest, persistent labors of these men remain unnumbered; but this work may have stood between the world and some awful scourge like that of the "Black Death" in the fourteenth century. We shall hear of Dr. Strong again.

War, of all the great disasters with which the Red Cross has had to deal, is the only one that exceeds famine in its miseries and long-drawn-out sufferings, and only then when war is so extended and so prolonged that famine and disease become its grim companions.

The gaunt, awful spectre of famine creeps with stealthy steps upon a nation. Floods or drouths, or the hand of man, prepare its way. Fields of ripening grain are rotted and destroyed by overflowing rivers that broaden into vast shallow lakes, or parched and burned under hot, cloudless heavens that withhold their rains, or devastated by the hosts of war.

That Florence Nightingale interested herself in famine prevention in India is not generally known, but in 1874 she completed the first proof of a volume dealing with irrigation for that country, entitled "The Zemindar, the Sun, and the Watering Pot as Affecting Life and Death in India." This, to her later regret, was never published. She was convinced that the real remedy lay in the improvement of economic conditions rather than in temporary measures. The fact that Miss Nightingale, a pioneer in Red Cross work, had given such earnest thought to famine prevention shows how naturally such endeavors fall within the proper scope of Red Cross duties, though the article dealing with this work of hers in the "Contemporary Review," of April, 1914, was printed several years after the American Red Cross had undertaken the study of prevention of famine in China and its officers were unaware of Miss Nightingale's unpublished book.

Time and time again have China and India, and parts of Russia, known what famines are. China, with her immense population, is quick to feel the clutch of the fatal fingers of starvation when over the fertile valley of the Huai River, the granary of the Empire, the river and shallow lakes flood thousands of square miles of cultivated lands. No other words can I find to describe even faintly famine conditions than those written last year for the Red Cross Magazine:

"Picture if you can, the sufferings of hundreds of thousands of human beings. Their houses sold for a little food or burned by bits for a little warmth, the farms flooded—water-soaked, the unharvested, rotted grain—these wretched people are driven, a pathetic pilgrimage, to the large cities. Scantily clad, with hunger written on their pallid faces, one sees the man bearing as best he can the emaciated form of some old father or mother; the woman, her wailing baby pressed to a breast that has no nourishment to give it, and her little children clinging to her dress to help their weak and trembling steps. They stop by the way to grub from the muddy earth a few roots or tear from the trees a few handfuls

HUNGER CAMP IN CHINA

of bark to stay for a moment the pangs of their bitter hunger, no matter what the sufferings that may arise from food that is not food and that serves only to fill the empty, craving stomachs. Occasionally one drops by the roadside. Nature, which fights so hard for human life, gives up. Covering his face, the others leave him there alone, pushing on with weary hearts and feeble bodies, whither they hardly know.

"To the miseries of physical suffering must be added the mental anguish of watching those they love hunger and die. The hands of the children upstretched for food she cannot give, their hungry eyes, their trembling bodies and pitiful cries tear the mother's heart with a pain no words can describe. Moral degradation follows. Honest men become desperate, and in their desperation turn to robbery, brigandage and murder. In prison one may have food, and better far die by the swift hand of the executioner than by the slow torture of starvation."

Since 1907 the American Red Cross has expended nearly six hundred thousand dollars for famine relief in China, and this does not include the large cargoes of food nor the contributions of missionary and other organizations. In that part of China that lies north of the Huai River, the Hungtze Lake, and the old bed of the Yellow River, and south of the present bed of the same river, lies a continent in the making, which for more than two thousand years has known little rest from flood operations. The Great Yu, before the time of Christ, undertook conservancy works in this same district. During the last few years these floods have so increased that over the entire area the farmers do not average two crops in five years, whereas if floods could be eliminated they would harvest annually two large crops.

Recognizing its duty of prevention, in 1911 the Red Cross, with the approval of the State Department, offered to the Chinese Government an expert engineer on river conservancy work, with a view to designing some scheme by means of which the flood level could be lowered, the rivers properly channeled, and the swamps and shallow lakes drained and made available for agriculture. This offer was accepted, and Mr. Charles D. Jameson, who had spent many years in China, selected for the work. The change in the Chinese Government somewhat retarded his efforts, but in 1912 he submitted a report of his preliminary survey to the Chinese Government and the American Red Cross, showing the feasibility of such a design and that the land reclaimed and improved would itself pay for the necessary expenditure. The Chinese Government then asked the American Red Cross to secure for it the required loan and to select the engineer to be placed in charge. At a joint meeting of the Executive Committee and International Relief Board of the Red Cross the subject was given careful consideration by such members as the chairman, General George W. Davis, Senator Elihu Root, Mr. Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior; Professor John Bassett Moore, then counselor of the State Department; Mr. Seth Low, Mr. John Barrett, Mr. Henry D. Flood, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs; Mr. Franklin D. Roosevelt, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, and a number of others. A message was drafted and sent through the State Department to Dr. Paul Reinsch, the American Minister at Peking, to be transmitted to the Chinese Government, to the effect that the American Red Cross, being a humanitarian and philanthropic organiaztion, could not extend its function to business enterprises, but that it would consent to use its good offices to aid the Chinese Government in interesting bankers and construction companies in the proposition, and that it would endeavor to secure the services of a competent engineer to be appointed by the Chinese Government in charge of the work. The necessity for a more complete and thorough survey before the loan could be considered was explained, and the Chinese Government agreed to share with the Red Cross the cost of such a survey. In the summer of 1914 a board of three eminent engineers, consisting of Colonel William L. Sibert, who had just completed the Gatun lock and dam at Panama and who was allowed to undertake this Chinese survey by means of a special Act of Congress; Mr. Arthur P. Davis, chief engineer of the United States Reclamation Service; and Professor Daniel W. Mead, of the Ohio Flood Commission; with Mr. Jameson as an adviser, and a number of assistants, was sent to China to make a thorough study of flood conditions and to prepare designs for river conservancy in the Huai district. The very satisfactory result of the board's work is shown by its report published by the Red Cross. These exceptionally able and practical engineers have outlined a plan by which this great conservancy work can be carried out, the Huai district drained into the Yangtse River, in six years' time, at an approximate expenditure of thirty million dollars, the estimated return from the value of lands reclaimed and the increased value of lands benefited meeting the entire cost of the operation.

At a meeting of the Red Cross International Relief Board presided over by Mr. Robert Lansing, the present Secretary of State, to hear Colonel Sibert's report, Senator Root called attention to the great value of an organization such as the Red Cross, to which China, suffering from so many unfair advantages other nations had taken of her condition, could turn for aid, with complete confidence in its disinterested and altruistic motives. No sinister intent to obtain selfish gain or establish spheres of influnce lurked back of its honest desire to be of help.

An amusing incident occurred during this meeting. Colonel Sibert was describing earnestly the erratic ways of the Yellow River, "China's Sorrow," the peregrinations of whose channel and outlet to the sea have taken it hither and thither, many miles north and south, during a score of centuries, when he was interrupted by Senator Root, who asked, with a suspicion of a twinkle in his eye, "Does it carry anything else but water?" To which Colonel Sibert solemnly replied, "Yes, sir, sediment."

Among the many other misfortunes caused by the present colossal war must be included the effect upon the financial world which has prevented China securing the loan necessary to carry out this important project. For the sake of the multitude of her people, whose lives depend upon its being done, and for the sake of the untold human misery in the future that it will prevent, let us hope this great work may not long be delayed. Professor Paul Reinsch, the American Minister at Peking, says of it:

"At the present time a condition of distress again exists in this region; this is added evidence of the necessity of the work; and such heartrending calamities will continue to dominate this most fertile region of China until radical relief is afforded, such as only the Huai River improvement can give. This condition is also an argument in favor of the immediate commencement of the engineering works.

"I may state to you, as I have said to the Department of State and to the President, that there is no undertaking at present proposed in China which equals in importance and significance the Huai River improvement. It is not only that millions of acres of the most fertile agricultural land of China will be reclaimed to usefulness, affording assured means of livelihood to twenty million human beings, but the character of the work itself is of such a nature that its execution would have a profound influence on the future of China. The work would be a model for scientific method and organization as applied throughout Chinese life. More especially, however, it would be the beginning of reclaiming the waste lands of China and utilizing the forces of nature, as represented in the rain-swollen streams, with the result that, according to the computations of competent experts, the agricultural productivity of China could be increased by nearly one hundred per cent. This is the starting point of all reform, leading to the betterment of conditions of life in this country. That these opportunities exist is recognized by the leading representatives of all nations: the American project has therefore been given generous commendation and support in the press throughout the world, such as has never fallen to any other foreign enterprise in China, without exception.

"I have written so fully to you about this matter because I realize that in this enterprise lies the finest opportunity which America has ever had of bringing a great liberating influence to bear in China—liberating millions of people, and eventually the entire population, from the dominance of unfavorable natural conditions. All Americans in China realize the importance of this work. Having put our hands to the improvement of famine conditions in central China, it has become a matter of justifiable national pride that this great work should be carried to the successful issue which is now in sight."

What our Red Cross has done for the present European war will be left to later pages.

So few of its many stories of international relief in the past, and so little of even these can be told in a single chapter to illustrate its beautiful service as the almoner of the American people. Yet I believe enough has been said to prove that through the medium of the Red Cross the best impulses of our national character find expression, and a higher, truer sense is developed of the brotherhood of nations.

CHAPTER XIV

WHERE THE MONEY COMES FROM. THE DIFFERENT FUNDS. MEMBERSHIP AND ENDOWMENT. RELIEF APPEALS. STORIES OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS. ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS. THE BABIES' PENNIES. THE JEWISH WOMAN'S GIFT. THE GRATEFUL ITALIAN SAILOR. FROM AN IRISH REFUGEE. THE MINER'S GRATITUDE. RECIPROCITY. THE IMPORTANCE OF A RESERVE FUND.

"Where does the money come from," is a question constantly asked of the Red Cross officers, after the inquirers have listened to reports of its immense fields of work. "From voluntary public contributions," would be the simplest answer; but a more satisfactory reply can best be made by an explanation of its different funds and their purposes.

The General Fund was formerly called the Administrative Fund, but to avoid a large number of minor funds that had not to do strictly with administrative work the term "general" was substituted. This fund includes the administrative expenses of the central and division offices; the floating capital of the Christmas seal expenditure; the fund for the maintenance of first-aid instructions, together with the salaries and expenses of the four physician instructors and one life-saving instructor, the caretakers of the two cars and the upkeep of these cars on which the railroad instructors live and travel; the moneys for the purchase of supplies and text-books for the First Aid Supply Bureau, which are sold at a small profit, but sufficient to maintain this bureau; for the Nursing Service and women's classes in home care of the sick; for the Town and Country Nursing Service; and for the expense in connection with the Red Cross monthly magazine that every member receives.

This General Fund is derived from various sources.

When membership dues are received through chapters, eighty per cent. of the ten dollar sustaining membership dues and fifty per cent of the annual dollar membership dues are transmitted to the National Treasurer. The entire amount of dues of members-at-large is received by the central organization. These produce an annual income of about ten thousand dollars.

The Japanese Red Cross receives from its three yen ($1.50) yearly dues a very large income, as it has a membership of over one million eight hundred thousand; it has besides the interest on its great endowment fund. Though none of the European Red Cross societies have memberships equal to that of Japan, some have several hundred thousand members, whose dues provide large annual funds.

Besides the membership dues, the interest on the American Red Cross Endowment Fund, on bank balances, generous annual contributions for special purposes from several members, the profits from the sale of first-aid supplies, and one-half of any profit that may remain after the Christmas seal expenses are met from the ten per cent. the Red Cross receives from the net sale of the seals, complete the sources from which the General Fund is obtained. The other moiety on the Christmas seal profits is given to the National Society for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

The Endowment Fund, as its name implies, is a permanent fund, only the income from which can be used for any or all Red Cross purposes. Although this fund is the recipient of patron and life membership dues, it mainly depends upon special contributions. During President Taft's administration he appointed a large number of local endowment fund committees of prominent men in various cities. In his letter of appointment Mr. Taft said: "The time has come when the American Red Cross should be placed on a permanent and efficient basis by an endowment fund whose income will enable it to be prepared at all times to carry out the purposes for which it has been created. It is the authorized official organization of the United States for volunteer aid in time of war or great disaster.'' The funds received for relief work had proved the public confidence in the organization, Mr. Taft noted, and continued: ''but it is of equal importance that the society should be able to maintain an organization capable of administering such large funds to the greatest advantage. The experience in relief matters gained by a permanent organization is beyond question, and insures far abler and wiser expenditure of relief funds than can be secured by temporary and suddenly created committees. . . . In case of great disasters the Red Cross should have such a balance on hand as to enable it to take immediate action without being forced to wait until contributions are received. The standing of this remarkable organization throughout the world, its importance to our own country, and its beneficent influence for peace and good will in international relief work commend it to the public-spirited men and women of the United States.''

These local endowment fund committees were asked to raise in their respective communities an amount equal to ten cents per capita of the population. This rate made the quota of New York City, for example, with its population of four million seven hundred thousand, $470,000. The New York committee had a nest-egg in twenty-five thousand dollars, already contributed for the endowment, and went at its work with enthusiasm. Mr. J. P. Morgan, when approached by its chairman, immediately made the offer to give one hundred thousand as soon as four hundred thousand was secured. The donor of twenty-five thousand doubled her gift, and another prominent woman in New York gave a like amount. A legacy from an estate, and three other Red Cross members made up the second hundred thousand. Generous contributions were obtained from several men by the committee. But the fund still lacked sixty thousand of the amount necessary to obtain the banker's generous offer, when a single mail brought from one family in New York City seventy thousand dollars from its different members. Forty-five people in New York City gave five hundred and ten thousand dollars, not counting the special endowment of a hundred thousand for the Town and Country Nursing Service. Thus our largest city raised more than its share.

The pretty old town of Manchester-by-the-Sea, in Massachusetts, was the first of the small towns to fulfil its duty as to the Red Cross Endowment. The population of Manchester is twenty-seven hundred. This made its quota two hundred and seventy dollars. To secure this amount some one proposed a bag sale, and the whole town entered into the plan with the broad spirit of the Red Cross that embraces all. The select-men gave the town hall without charge. The local G. A. R. loaned all their flags for decoration. The carpenter put up the booths and decorated each with red, white or blue cheesecloth given by a kindly man, as he was "not gifted in the making of bags;" and the painter painted all the signs. The Congregational Church committee took the red table, with its miscellaneous bags; the Unitarian and Episcopal summer churches united at the white table, for working, sewing and mending bags; the Baptist church had the blue table, for travelers' bags; the Roman Catholic church took charge of the ice cream and cake table; while the Harmony Guild presided over the lemonade, and the King's Daughters sold candy in bags of various kinds. The Woman's Club had charge of decorations, and the editors of the two weekly Manchester papers constituted the publicity committee.

The increase in the bag species was astonishing. New bags were invented, and old bags brought to light and reproduced. Bags came from far and wide. Even Mistress Pussy was not forgotten, a bag for her journeying being sent by a charming member of Boston's old literary world, regarding which a brilliant New York Unitarian divine suggested that its furnishings be mice. As the great number of bags accumulated the question arose among the skeptical as to the equally important number of purchasers. These went beyond all expectations. The sale began at three o'clock, and by four the tables were practically denuded of every bag, and more were clamored for. Hundreds of people packed the town hall, automobiles and carriages blocked the town streets. The chief of police, who, with his assistants, was taking care of the traffic, hardly found a moment to dash in and secure the bachelor's sewing bag he had reserved earlier in the day. What of the financial results? Manchester had raised over two thousand dollars, nearly eight times her quota, and not a single penny of expense was incurred. Our largest city and one of our smallest towns have each patriotically completed their share of the American Red Cross endowment. Only a very few others have done the same. San Francisco nearly doubled its quota. The District of Columbia in a short time obtained more than its share, as did St. Louis. Scranton next fell into line; and fired with enthsuiasm by what Manchester had accomplished, the little nearby villages of Amesbury and Magnolia each secured double their apportionment. The always faithful Canal Zone Chapter, dependent upon a small American population, without delay sent in its share. These so far are the only communities that have fulfilled their obligation. All the important Red Cross societies of Europe are largely endowed, such endowment amounting in some countries to four or five millions of dollars, while the endowment fund of the Japanese Red Cross is thirteen million dollars. These funds are constantly being augmented by legacies and gifts as special tokens of the donors' patriotic devotion to the country.

Special Red Cross funds will at any time be as numerous as the special relief fields in which work is being carried on. Sometimes such funds have special subdivisions, as in the case of the present European war, which besides the general war relief fund has a number of funds consisting of special contributions for each country involved, for noncombatants and other particular purposes. The wishes of the donors are always respected by the Red Cross, and their contributions administered according to their desires.

These special relief funds are generally obtained by means of public appeals. Since the reorganization of the American Red Cross in 1905 in cases of serious disasters the Presidents of the United States have in their capacity as president of the Red Cross issued specific appeals asking that funds be contributed to the Red Cross for relief purposes. These appeals have been supplemented by others from the Executive Committee with instructions to whom or how contributions should be sent. When the disaster is sensational in its nature, and especially where there is reported to be a large loss of life, the response is prompt and generous. But when the awful sufferings produced by famines overwhelm great numbers by slow, sure and gradual degrees, the public gives far less, not because of callous indifference, but from lack of comprehension. "How many are dying a day?" is asked with no realization of the agonies that a starving people undergoes. Nature fights against death. The battle between man and famine, allied with disease, is one of slow and horrible torture to man, the wretched victim. Only those who have witnessed it can understand it. On the other hand, a frightful earthquake is far more dramatic. There is something awful and appalling in these sudden tragedies of nature that appeals strongly to our generosity. After that in southern Italy within a few days a million dollars was received.

An interesting table was later compiled analyzing the sources of this contribution in the number of mills given per capita by different States. California easily took the lead, giving over thirteen cents per capita. The District of Columbia came next, with nearly six cents per capita. Rhode Island, Nevada, New York and Connecticut followed in the order named. There was a long drop then to the other States. In justice to some of them it may be assumed that contributions were sent through other channels, but of these there is no available record. As the American Red Cross is the only national relief organization required by law to make annually a detailed report to Congress, after its accounts are audited by the War Department, which report is printed as a public document, it is the only one by means of which permanent and official records of American generosity in relief work are preserved.

Contributions by States were also given in the report upon the Ohio flood relief in 1913. In the list of these contributions, not including funds donated directly within the states affected, the District of Columbia, which stood second in the Italian relief, took the lead in its per capita donations, Massachusetts being a close second. It is possible that the excellent record made by the District of Columbia is due to the fact that in Washington all relief contributions are sent through the single channel of the Red Cross.

The largest relief contribution received from a single individual came from Mr. Adolphus Busch, of St. Louis, for a hundred thousand dollars, and thereby hangs a little story. Mr. and Mrs. Busch were in San Francisco at the time of the fire and earthquake in 1906 and escaped all injury. On their return home Mr. Busch expressed a desire to make a donation for relief as a thank offering. He telegraphed to Mr. Taft asking to whom it should be sent, and received the reply, "To the American Red Cross." At the time of the Italian earthquake a generous gift of twenty-five thousand dollars came from the same source. From an appropriation made by the New York Legislature for San Francisco one hundred thousand dollars was sent to the Red Cross, and the two hundred and fifty thousand dollars appropriated by the Ohio Legislature for the flood relief in that State was also entrusted to Red Cross administration.

But beside these generous contributions of State legislatures and men and women of wealth, lie the gifts of the thousands who of their little give with equal sympathy and even more self-sacrifice. For Italy one morning the same mail brought a ten thousand dollar check from a man well known for both his wealth and his philanthropy, and another from a little colored mission church for $2.89. Not only from the churches, but from the Sunday schools, does money come. The children, many of them Mexicans, of a little day school at Old Glory, with no pennies to give, more than once made small articles to sell for the Red Cross. Here and there a young boy struggles with a letter that carries his contribution even when that means a sacrifice of many a pleasant plan. One such wrote, "My name is Sidney. I am eight years old and I send you twenty-five cents for some poor boy in the floods. My brother, Donald, who is three years old, sends you ten cents." There was a strong suspicion at Red Cross headquartes that Baby Donald was "held up" for that ten cents, as a three-year-old's comprehension of flood suffering is not apt to be exceedingly vivid.

Ever since the Italian earthquake an Italian sailor, who was for some time in the United States Navy, has in simple ways and touching words of broken English poured out his gratitude to the American Red Cross, by a gift of embroidery of eagles, flags, and emblems such as sailors make, or a lily brought to the office at Easter time; and once it was a plaster reproduction of Thorwaldsen's "Night and Morning." When the European war broke out, and before even Italy was involved, he came to say that he had a few hundred dollars in a bank and as long as the war lasted the interest on his little savings were to go to the Red Cross. He asked to have the bank arrange to pay it directly to the organization, for he thought, though he received only two per cent. interest, the bank would pay three for the Red Cross.

During one of the Chinese famines there was received one day a contribution that conveyed, perhaps as none other had, the wonderful breadth of Red Cross relationship. A poor Russian Jewess, an emigrant, in an illiterate letter from Chicago, explained that her mother had told her children how she had suffered from famine in Russia. The writer continued that the Jews fasting for one day knew what it meant to feel hungry, but realized on the morrow they could have food; but that the poor Chinese must go without bread on the morrow, and on many other days. So she sent five dollars to the Red Cross for the suffering people. Think of it, a poor Russian Jewess working woman sending from her scanty earnings to the Red Cross for the starving people of China!

"Cast thy bread upon the water and thou shalt find it after many days," is an old saying that comes very true in some of the gifts of gratitude the Red Cross receives. One of the Irish refugees of the Relief Home built by the Red Cross at San Francisco is given a little pay for some simple labor he does about the place. His letter is typical of a warm Irish heart. "Inclosed find five dollars. It is with tears in my eyes for the distress of those people in Indiana and Ohio, who probably contributed to aid us in our distress in 1906, that I have donated this little money to them. It is my last month's pay, received for, I presume, my labor. Being treated well, and having no need for it now, I cheerfully contribute it."

From Monongah, West Virginia, another letter tells the story of the miner's gratitude: "We have felt greatly indebted to these United States as well as the Red Cross for the kindness and contributions in our disaster of December 6, 1907, and wish to assure you that we have not forgotten and still hold the Red Cross in high esteem and confidence, and feel satisfied that whatever help is needed you are the first to administer to their wants, and to show in part our appreciation we, the citizens of Monongah, herein forward New York draft to the amount of two hundred and forty dollars and ask that the same be used for the relief of flood sufferers, offering no recommendations as to where it shall be used, as we realize from our past experience that you are in the best position to distribute funds."

These are but a few of the many incidents that might be quoted to show where the money comes from. Such gifts as these set the heart aglow and make the Red Cross work full of inspiration.

Nor must we forget the spirit of reciprocity in the gifts that have been received from other lands. The contributions of the Red Cross of France, Germany, Austria and Portugal for the care of our sick and wounded soldiers in the war with Spain have already been mentioned. The Japanese Red Cross, though hardly recoverd from the heavy demands of a great war, sent to the American Red Cross one hundred and forty-six thousand dollars for the relief of San Francisco; and after the Ohio floods the Italian Red Cross offered a large contribution of supplies for the aid of those suffering from illness or injury because of the disaster.

One other Red Cross fund has yet to be explained—this is the Contingent Fund. If after relief work in any particular field is completed there remains a balance of money contributed for this purpose, such funds are placed in the Contingent Fund, and never used for administrative purposes, nor for any other Red Cross activities save those of relief. From this fund the Red Cross has drawn time and time again when some sudden call was made upon it for a limited amount of aid that would not justify a national appeal. After a small village or town suffers some disaster that would cause but little concern in a large city, but that is almost overwhelming to the little community, a limited but prompt appropriation from this fund is not only of great material aid, but brings the necessary courage to take up its own burden of rehabilitation. Again there are times and seasons when appeals for disasters in foreign lands do not seem opportune; but a gift from the Contingent Fund shows our sympathetic interest and good will. Since Mexico has suffered from continuous internal strife there have been many calls upon this fund, either to aid American refugees, injured and sick, or to care for the Mexican wounded that have fled across our borders. The Contingent Fund, moreover, enables the Red Cross to meet the immediate needs in the case of serious disasters before contributions are received. In case the misfortune of war should threaten us it is the only reserve upon which the organization can depend for preparation for sick and wounded relief measures, as no appeal can be made until the day war is actually declared. It is necessarily a fluctuating fund, and at any time may become exhausted. Hence the great importance of providing an adequate Endowment Fund for the American Red Cross. Until its Endowment Fund is of sufficient size the Contingent Fund is the only means the Red Cross has to meet these various needs.

CHAPTER XV

A RUSSIAN FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE. DISASTER RELIEF NOT AN AMERICAN AMENDMENT. FAMINE IN THE VOLGA VALLEY. WAR IN THE FAR EAST. GIFT OF THE EMPRESS MARIE FEODOROVNA. JAPANESE TRADITIONS AND WAR STORIES. THE EXPRESSION OF PATRIOTISM. THE HOSPITAL AT TOKYO. A SHINTO CEREMONY. THE PEACE ACTIVITIES. THE EMPRESS HARU KO'S RED CROSS POEM.

RUSSIA'S Florence Nightingale during the Crimean war was the Grand Duchess Helen Pavlovna, who under the leadership of the celebrated surgeon Pirogoff headed a large body of nurses called Sisters of the Exaltation. Many of these women displayed remarkable courage, venturing out under fire to the field of battle to rescue and bring back the wounded. Some twelve years later a permanent relief society was formed, but it was not until 1876 that it adopted the name of the Russian Red Cross. The present Dowager Empress Marie Feodorovna has been for many years its patroness, while her sister, Queen Alexandra, is the president of the British Red Cross.

It has been claimed that the American Red Cross was the originator of the idea that these Red Cross societies should render relief after serious disasters, and that therefore this new field of activities was called "the American amendment." The fact is that before the American Red Cross even existed the Russian Red Cross had advocated and carried on such service. The aid it gave for the relief of sufferers from the serious famine in the valley of the Volga is typical of its success in such humanitarian lines. Not only were the starving to be fed, but those sick from scurvy and typhoid to be cared for under many difficulties. Different people, with different languages, customs and religions, were involved, and the Moslem women could be reached only by women doctors. Among the ignorant peasantry the news of the Red Cross spread fast, and wherever a relief column advanced upon a village the poor starving inhabitants rushed out with great rejoicing to receive it. In some places private individuals had opened relief stations which soon, either because of exhausted funds or exhausted enthusiasm, were closed at the time most needed; and the Red Cross had to go to the rescue. In other cases small communities received contributions far in excess of their needs. One little village was sent thirty thousand dollars by a generous donor, which so embarrassed the local relief committee that the chairman, the village priest, proposed to utilize most of it in constructing a new church. For the traveling hordes of tattered, harassed and half-starved men seeking work up and down the Volga River immense hostelries were constructed. Soup kitchens were opened in the schools, and into the little homes of the hungry went the Red Cross nurses to carry food and minister to the sick.

The Russian Red Cross has developed into an extensive organization, with many departments for the divisions of its work. In an imposing building at Petrograd are found its headquarters. It owns and maintains a number of great hospitals, where its nurses, formed into different lay sisterhoods, are trained, and which, in time of war, are utilized as reserve hospitals for the army. In spite of royal patronage, it was not until 1876 that its invaluable service was appreciated. In the Russo-Turkish war, when it at once leaped into popular favor, eight million dollars were contributed for its war relief work, which enabled it to transport and care for over four hundred thousand sick and wounded men. The majority of the Red Cross organizations are supported entirely by voluntary gifts, but the Russian Red Cross is an exception to the rule, as besides public contributions the government aids it by special taxes collected on theatre and railroad tickets and charges on passports. Generally the Red Cross is regarded as the instrument of the people for assisting their governments in time of need, and for this reason the Red Cross societies usually do not seek government support. The relationship of the Russian Red Cross to the regular army medical service is rather that of an independent organization than of a medical reserve force. In still another feature does this association differ from most of its sister societies,—that is, in the utilization near the front of its personnel, even of its women nurses, some of whom were wounded during the war in Manchuria.

Russia through its Red Cross has generously extended aid to many other countries involved in war. Such assistance was offered to the American government during our war with Spain, but this was courteously declined as it was not necessary. It is interesting to find that this society gave aid to both sides at the time of the civil war in Spain; and yet at the Ninth International Conference, held at Washington in 1912, when the American Red Cross offered for discussion the subject of Red Cross aid from other countries in time of internecine strife, Russia united with the more important European powers in opposing any resolution upon the subject. Humanity demands such aid, and the discussion of the matter at Washington may lead later to some satisfactory international agreement regarding such assistance.

During the Russo-Japanese War, from the wonderful and picturesque old palace of the Romanoffs in the Kremlin to the little hut of the peasant in the Far East, was carried on the Red Cross work. Piled to the ceiling in the throne-room and great reception halls of the palace were clothing and supplies. The Grand Duchess Elizabeth herself superintended the cutting out and distributing of garments to be made by the women in their homes. Russia was fighting thousands of miles from her base of supplies. It was not an easy matter to get to the front or to bring back the train loads of sick and wounded. Without the hospital trains of the Red Cross many of these men would have perished in a distant land, far away from their homes and families. Railroad service was very limited in Manchuria, so ponies were equipped with large hampers, carried on either side, filled with surgical supplies for transportation to the small temporary hospitals,—or were used to draw the sledge ambulances over the cold Siberian snows. Side by side with the Russian hospitals in Manchuria was a most perfect hospital given and maintained by the German Red Cross. It was an old friend to the United States Army surgeon at Harbin, who had known it during the Boxer troubles in China. There is a touch of pathos in such recollections. Yesterday nations were friends who to-day are enemies. What new alignment will to-morrow bring?

It is doubtful if in any other country the women of the royal family take so active a part in Red Cross work as in Russia. The beautiful Empress, with her pretty daughters, donning the white cap and kerchief of the nurse, with the Red Cross, on the arm or in the Russian nurse's fashion, upon the breast, goes about the hospitals in gentle simplicity, helping to care for the wounded men. Her heart torn with the sufferings of the soldiers, the Empress Marie Feodorovna one day conceived the idea of giving to the International Red Cross Committee a special endowment of fifty thousand dollars, the income of which should be awarded to the best inventions to mitigate the suffering of the wounded in war. To the inventors of a portable X-ray machine, of patent stretchers, of surgeons' field sterilizers, and other devices these prizes were first awarded in Washington at the conference in 1912. Were it not so tragic there would be something comical in the way man invents machines to kill and injure, then uses his ingenuity to provide methods of repairing damages caused by his own destructive genius.

In speaking of the Red Cross in Japan, Mr. Shoichi

Omori, president of the Kioto branch, said: "Whatever work of philanthropy and charity was planned by the Imperial Government the people lost no time in sharing their sympathies with it. Though the formal establishment of a Red Cross Society in Japan was effected after the Meiji restoration, its practical work has been going on since the beginning of Japanese history. We consider this the glory of our Empire." A study of some of the ancient royal edicts of Japan convinces one of the truth of Mr. Omori's statement. At the very beginning of the fourteenth century one of the old emperors expressed his sympathy as father of all the people for those "who are groaning in pain day and night on account of a dangerous disease," and ordered that throughout the empire the proper medicines should be distributed so that they might be relieved and restored to health and peace.

Another emperor, whose reign began two years after America was discovered, in a royal edict, said, "Ever since my taking up the reins of the Empire through heavenly appointment in order to minister to the wants of my people my mind has been filled with policies of peace and harmony which will finally bring about an age of great happiness. I am, however, lately informed of the miserable conditions of my people to which they have been reduced owing to the general failure of crops in the previous year all over the country. Being their ruler and pastor I am very much troubled in my mind as I see that so far no measure of relief has been taken for the sick and hungry. My deep sympathy goes to the suffering. Let, therefore, all those famine-stricken people that may be found throughout the Empire be looked after carefully according to their condition and have whatever aid they are in need of." When this same emperor, Nimmyo, learned of an earthquake in the province of Idsu he sent a special messenger to relieve and comfort the sufferers. He ordered that those whose houses had been demolished should be relieved of their land and house taxes, "after the local authorities have been properly consulted with in this matter." He also ordered that the public granary should be opened for their relief and the ruined buildings repaired. The broad-minded attitude of this emperor is shown in a sentence of this edict: "The imperial work of benevolence should not make any discrimination whatever; whether a sufferer be a loyal subject or an unruly outcast, let him equally be a recipient of the royal generosity." Again and again did the emperors of Japan issue similar edicts. Nor were the rulers of this eastern kingdom behind in their humane ideas of modern warfare. About the beginning of the tenth century the Empress Jingo, who personally took up arms, in a command issued to her soldiers, ordered that "no violence should be allowed, and kill not those who surrender." Another military order issued a few centuries later provided that the prisoners should be liberally taken care of, so that they should not think of their own homes. And in case of famine the prisoners were to share relief, "for the pain of starvation is felt equally by us irrespective of social positions."

The famous Iyeyasu said to his soldiers, "The object of a battle is to disable the enemy by shooting him down, not to torment him needlessly and inhumanly. He is doing service to his master as you are to yours."

To the Japanese the emperor seems to stand as a personification of their country, and about him centres their patriotic devotion. The spirit of the Red Cross as exemplified by these old sovereigns of Japan perhaps best explains the wonderful development of this organization in the Land of the Rising Sun, for patriotism comes even before humanity in the principle of the Japanese Red Cross. By means of their Red Cross the Japanese may even in time of peace express his love for his country.

It was during the civil war of 1877 that the Hakuaisha, or charitable association for the care of the sick and wounded, was created. Though the insurgents under

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JAPANESE RED CROSS SURGEONS AND NURSES FOR THE ALLIES

the law were regarded as rebels, the emperor, believing that they fought for what they thought best for the country, contributed to the fund of this association, which was caring for the victims of both armies.

The Japanese government did not become a signatory power of the Treaty of Geneva until 1884, when the association changed its name to that of the Red Cross of Japan under the patronage of the emperor and empress. Its work is carried on under the supervision of the Departments of the Imperial Household, the Army and the Navy. The governor of every district in Japan has accepted the presidency of the local branch. Before the days of the Red Cross there existed in Japan a strong prejudice against women of reputable character undertaking professional nursing. To overcome this prejudice many of those of the highest rank formed a Ladies' Volunteer Nursing Association in connection with the society, a number of whom took courses at the hospital. This example immediately elevated the standard of nursing. To-day Japan may well be proud both of the character and the professional ability of her many thousand Red Cross nurses, some of whom are to-day aiding in the care of the sick and wounded of her allies in Europe.

Miss Mary Gladwin, one of the ablest and most experienced of our American Red Cross nurses, after working with the Japanese nurses during the Russo-Japanese war, said of them: "We have come into intimate contact with the Red Cross nurses of Japan, and day by day we have learned to hold them in ever higher honor and regard. They have taught us many valuable lessons, and we hope to be better women for the insight given us into their beautiful, unselfish lives and their skilful devotion and consecration to their work."

In the summer of 1905, at the close of the war, the large Red Cross hospital at Tokyo, with additional barrack wards, was filled with nearly fifteen hundred patients, when one of the officers of the American Red Cross visited it. On the left arms of the neat, white cotton kimonos worn by the men were little red crosses. In each ward the patient in the bed nearest the door was the officer of the ward and, beside the Red Cross, wore on the left breast of his kimono two short bars of blue and red This officer gave in Japanese a command as we entered the room, and every man who was able to do so sat up at "attention" in his bed. Throughout these long wards moved the gentle little nurses in their white dresses and quaint mob caps, on the front of each of which was again a little red cross. A graduate nurse wore also a star on her collar; the head nurse of a ward wore two stars; and the superintendent nurse three stars. Members of the Ladies' Volunteer Nursing Association were helping under the direction of the regular nurses, and wore the nurse's dress, but without a star. They were rolling bandages, reading to the men, writing letters for them, and, in one case, giving electric treatment. A glance at the nurses' own quarters was a revelation, as to Japanese simplicity. Into cupboards along the end walls of each room were stowed away the pillows and the thickly wadded quilts, to be brought out at night for the nurses' beds on the matted floor. Around the sides of the room stood rows of little study tables not more than a foot high, with piles of text-books covered with a square of brightly flowered cotton cloth, and these composed the only furniture of each apartment. It was a trifle disconcerting to find one's self suddenly in the presence of nearly two hundred of these bright-eyed, sober-faced nurses, expectant of a speech, and to be greeted with a low Japanese bow as the hands glide quickly down the front of the leg from the waist to the knee. It was a pleasure to tell them that their devoted and unselfish work was an inspiration to all of us who because of patriotism and humanity love the Red Cross.

Suffering from the dangerous wounds he received when the Russian fleet was defeated by that under Admiral Togo, Admiral Rojestvensky was nursed with the tenderest care by several of the Japanese nurses. On his recovery he expressed the desire to present to them some small gifts in token of his gratitude. He inquired of the Japanese Red Cross if this would be permitted, and received word in reply that greatly as the society appreciated his kindly motive it could not consent, as the nurses had only fulfilled their honorable duty, for which they should receive no reward.

On the death of Florence Nightingale a Shinto memorial service was held at the Red Cross hospital in Tokyo. In one of the nurses' class-rooms, over the altar was hung Miss Nightingale's picture. Addresses were made by prominent men upon her work. Then followed the ceremony according to the Shinto ritual. The spirit was invoked, the offerings made, and the liturgy read. This over, the superintendent of the nurses on their part read a paper before the spirit; after which they all bowed low in silent devotion. The ceremony was concluded by the Shinto priest performing what is known as the "sending off of the spirit ritual." Of this remarkable tribute to Miss Nightingale a Japanese article describing it said: "The heart with which the service was conducted by her admirers in the Far East must surely have reached her, who is now enjoying life eternal in another world."

After Port Arthur fell the Japanese Red Cross followed into the city with the supplies it had stored close outside for the benefit of several thousand Russian wounded, and immediately placed itself in friendly relationship with the officers of the Russian Red Cross at that place. This is humanity. But it is, according to the Japanese, also patriotism. They argue if kindly consideration is given by them to those of the enemy who fall into their hands, the same will be received by their soldiers who may have been made prisoners.

The people of Japan have shown much practical sense in their preparations for war itself. The Red Cross had constructed two hospital ships and leases these ships to regular steamship companies with the provision that they be returned to the society on the declaration of war. The rental of these ships has already amounted to enough to reimburse the society for their cost, and the ships themselves are still available for use when needed. It seems as if the Japanese had solved the problem of how to eat your cake and have it still.

The society is one of the most active, not only in time of war, but in the rendering of relief after great disasters, that are not infrequent in these volcanic islands. During a serious famine in the northern provinces for which the American Red Cross send contributions, Baron Ozawa, vice-president of the Japanese Red Cross, in making a tour of inspection of the famine-stricken districts, went into the huts of the poor people and himself told them of the help sent from America. Those who could work were provided with work in the paddy fields or at home in the making of straw or bamboo articles and fish nets, materials being furnished and the products bought at good prices. Luncheons were provided for the school-children. Special precautions were taken to disinfect text-books given by the children from the southern provinces, to prevent epidemics, so liable to follow famine. Some of the starving school-children, imbued with the proud spirit of the Samurai, would not at first accept the food, though for more than two days they had eaten nothing.

The society has lately entered into the campaign against tuberculosis, and appropriated last year a large amount of money for this work.

Nowhere has the Red Cross had so remarkable a development as in the Land of Nippon. There it has nearly two million members and an endowment fund of thirteen million dollars. Its annual meetings take place in the Hibiya Park, at Tokyo, for no building in Japan can hold the thirty or forty thousand representatives who are present. The empress herself attends and makes a short address of welcome and of commendation. So deeply interested was the late Empress Haru-Ko in the Red Cross that at the Ninth International Conference Baron Ozawa announced she had given to the International Red Cross Committee a special endowment of fifty thousand dollars, the income to be used for the encouragement of the activities of the Red Cross in time of peace; thus in the East and the West have two empresses shown their interest in Red Cross work.

The society of Japan publishes occasionally an English report, and hovering about the Red Cross on its cover, or perched upon the arms of the emblem, is a flight of doves bearing olive branches. This recalls a story of the war. After one of the great battles near Mukden, at the close of the day, Major Charles Lynch, United States Army medical attaché, stood on a low hill with a Japanese officer. To the east of them stretched the battlefield, covered with the dead, the dying and the wounded, among whom silently moved the surgeons, and stretcher-bearers of the Red Cross. To the west of them a serene and beautiful sunset illuminated the heavens. The Japanese officer, pointing to the eastern scene, murmured in English the single word, "War;" and then turning to the west said, "Peace."

No better expression perhaps of the Red Cross principles can be found than that embodied in a little poem by the Empress Haro-Ko. This was inscribed by her own hand on an exquisite background of gold, flowered over with chrysanthemums and other autumnal plants, and was presented to the Japanese Red Cross.

Universal love
Overflowing the boundaries
Of the Empire
Even unto strange lands
Marches onward. How glorious the age!

CHAPTER XVI

THE SOCIETIES OF GREAT BRITAIN AND HER COLONIES. THE KNIGHTS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM. THE BOER WAR. AN ACT OF PERFIDY. FROM BATTLEFIELD TO BASE HOSPITAL. LET LOOSE THE DOGS OF THE RED CROSS. THE FRENCH BRANCHES. ABUSE OF THE INSIGNIA. REPORTED ATROCITIES. THE BELGIAN RED CROSS BEHIND THE LINES. IN SERBIA AND MONTENEGRO. ITALY'S PREPARATIONS.

UNLIKE the continental nations, Great Britain organized no Red Cross after the Treaty of Geneva was adopted, but when the horrors of the battles of 1870 startled the English public, "The National Red Cross Society for Aid to the Sick and Wounded in War" was created, with Queen Victoria as patroness. As no organization had existed, great difficulty was experienced in dealing with the large sums of money and the vast amount of stores contributed. And yet Great Britain failed to learn the lesson. It was only after the report of the International Conference of Vienna in 1897 pointed out the dangers caused by the absence of a central Red Cross organization in touch with military requirements that a Central Red Cross Committee was created to co-ordinate this work of the Society for the Aid of the Sick and Wounded in War, the St. John's Ambulance Association and the Army Nursing Reserve.

In the Red Cross report published after the Boer War, the importance of organization in time of peace was emphasized because of this late experience. "The lessons of the past have shown that arrangements not pre-concerted and systematized in time of peace must necessarily be imperfect under the sudden emergencies of war. Confusion, overlapping delay, and waste of materials are the inevitable result."

It has been asserted that in Great Britain it would not be possible to arouse and hold public interest to such an extent as to maintain a large and active association in time of peace. The difficulty in England, if friendly criticism may be permitted, lies in the narrow scope of the British Red Cross field of activities. In spite of the opinion of intelligent army medical officers, it has limited its sphere of action to assistance of sick and wounded in war. Had it included, as have most of the other societies, relief after serious disasters, both at home, in its colonies and abroad, the problem of maintaining public interest would have proved not only less difficult but the society, through more frequent exercise of its functions, would find itself better fitted to cope promptly with war relief.

At the time of the Ninth International Red Cross Conference, held at Washington in 1912, Great Britain was the only important country whose society sent no delegates. The British government and the St. John's Ambulance Association were both well represented, the latter by Sir John Furley, a veteran in war relief work who, though nearly 80 years of age, has in the present war again aided the Princess Christian to provide and equip an hospital train.

Canada has had for some time a well organized Red Cross Society, but in the other British possessions the war relief has been largely carried on by the branches of the St. John's Ambulance Association.

The native princes of India have shown a remarkable loyalty to Great Britain in the present war. One of them, the Maharajah of Scindia, has given an ambulance fleet of fifty cars, with motorcycles and repair wagons, at a cost of $125,000. These are each marked as his "Gift to Sick Soldiers and Sailors, Christmas, 1914." In conjunction with Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal, the Maharajah has also provided the hospital ship "Loyalty" with five hundred beds. The other gifts of this generous Indian prince for relief amount to nearly two hundred thousand dollars additional. The Begum, besides the hospital ship, forwarded through the St. John's Ambulance Association thousands of Korans for the Moslem soldiers fighting with the British army. Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and all the smaller British colonies have done their share in the relief work.

The St. John's Ambulance Association, under the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, takes a very important part in the Red Cross work of Great Britain. About the year 1130 Jordan de Briset of Eltham, in Kent, gave to the Order of St. John of Jerusalem ten acres of ground at Clerkenwell. There the old Knights built their grand priory, and to-day on the same site are the headquarters of the St. John's Ambulance Association. The ancient priory, with its choir and nave, cloisters and dormitories, was burned by the rebels under Nat Tyler in 1381, but was later rebuilt, the gate-house, now the headquarters, in 1509. After the dissolution of the religious orders, Henry VIII used the buildings partly for an ammunition store-house and partly for a home for the Lady Mary. In the early part of the nineteenth century the council of the order, mainly French Knights, who had survived the Napoleonic expulsion from Malta, re-established the order in England. It began its real ambulance work during the Franco-Prussian War, and since then has steadily developed into a great organization with branches throughout the entire empire. A monument at the old priory was unveiled by King George, the head of the order, to commemorate seventy of the ambulance corps who gave their lives for their wounded comrades in the Boer and Chinese Wars. Over five thousand of these trained men are now acting as orderlies at the front, and on the ships and in home hospitals.

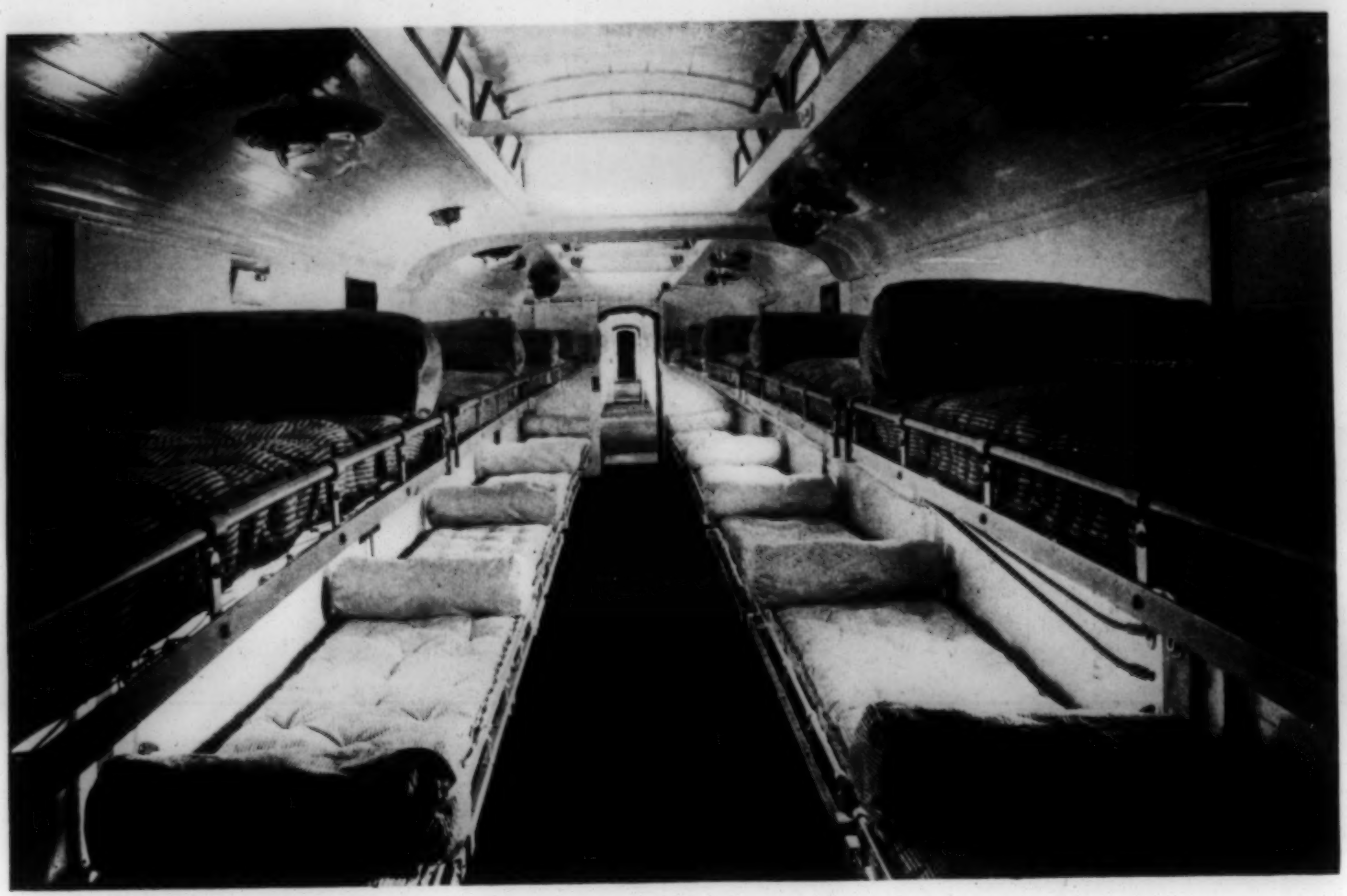
During the Boer War the British Red Cross, after some delay spent in organizing its departments, did good service especially with its hospital ships and trains. The first train of any kind to enter Ladysmith after the siege was the Princess Christian's hospital train, and very welcome were those white cars with their Red Cross insignia. The diaries of the surgeons on these trains are simple stories of faithful and often heroic service. Thinking only of the wounded men they labored to secure supplies, sometimes brought from a distance on slow ox-carts, they worked often under fire, crossed half-wrecked bridges, gathered up during cold nights the wounded from the stations or sweltered all day side-tracked under a pitiless sun with a temperature of 105° in their cars.

"Tommy Atkins," one of them wrote, "never shows up better than in circumstances like these. Often he lay on the bare floor tired out, hungry and cold, with clothes soaked and stiffened with blood that had oozed from the wounds bound round with puttees or whatever came to hand. All night as soon as they could be moved the Sisters and staff of our train worked, taking each in turn we strove to wash off the stains and dirt of the battlefield. Yet never a murmur, only a patient waiting and a jest when his turn came, and some there were with bullets through the abdomen and knew the peril of it, and some with shattered arms and legs, or with a bullet through the chest, or with bandaged eyes never again to see the light of day. At one stop we found the men lying on the station floor. As we entered one was being carried out. His fighting days were over and he was going to a soldier's grave on the open veldt. A small lamp was shedding its flickering and uncertain shadows over the bare, cold-looking walls, barely enough light to see what one was doing, making things more weird and creepy. A solemn silence only broken by the undertones of the stretcher-bearers as they carried their burden from the far corner of the room and found it difficult to avoid stumbling over the dark forms lying thickly spread on the floor, seemed in strange sympathy with what was going on in the room, and the still moonlit veldt. Now and then a moan would come from one of the dark forms wrapped in a blanket or overcoat, or a cry for water escaped. As we stood for a moment and looked on we could not help wishing those at home could see this other side to the picture of war, grim and real and shorn of all pomp and circumstance."

In noting in reports the aid given during the Boer War by the Red Cross of other countries, the American Red Cross becomes conspicuous by its absence. Americans as individuals gave generously, notably for the equipment and support of the hospital ship "Maine," but nothing is said of any assistance from our society because none was given. A bit of unwritten history may here be told. A company of thirty men from Chicago appealed to the then president of the American Red Cross to be sent as representatives to aid the Boer wounded. These men, without being carefully investigated, were given the Red Cross flag and a letter of introduction. On these credentials they were courteously permitted to pass through the British lines in South Africa. As soon as they reached the Boer troops they threw down their brassards, took up guns and joined the fighting forces.

During the last few years the British Red Cross has actively engaged in the organization and training of territorial detachments of men and women for hospital work. These detachments intended for service at home have equipped hospitals, assisted in nursing, aided Belgian refugees, and collected supplies. The immense supply depot of the British Red Cross has been under the able management of St. William Garstin, chairman of the English directors of the Suez Canal.

From battlefield to base hospital is a weary journey. A sudden dash from the trenches to drive the enemy from his, and the soldier falls with a shattered leg from a shrapnel shot. His comrades are forced in sudden retreat to desert him, and for hours a constant fusillade continues. On every side of him thunder the guns, over his head fly the screaming missiles, while on one side of him lies a dead man and on the other one whose life is



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INTERIOR OF A BRITISH RED CROSS HOSPITAL CAR

slowly ebbing away, with the blood of an unstaunched wound. Parched with thirst, burning with fever, tortured with pain, he lies helpless and in agony during these cruel, interminable hours. It may not be until the morrow that, by mutual agreement and under the Red Cross flag, a band of medical officers and stretcher-bearers moves quickly over the field. A surgeon stoops to examine him, notes his dangerous condition, and tags him for immediate care. Lifting him tenderly as the stretcher-bearers may, it is with a white face and suppressed groan that they carry him behind some low promontory to the first dressing station; there a temporary splint is placed about the poor mutilated limb, and with three others into the ambulance he is lifted; many there are who must be cared for and hastily hurried to the clearing hospital. A moment of consultation by the surgeons, a decision that he can stand the journey to the base hospital without an operation, and on he goes. The field hospital must be kept as clear as possible for the sudden needs of a great battle. Into the ambulance again he is lifted and transported to the hospital train. There in tiers one above the other lie the wounded. Will the long day never come to an end as train by train of reinforcing soldiers or necessary ammunition are rushed to the front while the hospital train with its pitiful and useless freight is side-tracked for the needs of the fighting army. The base hospital is reached at last where the gentle care of the nurse helps him bear the serious operation that leaves him, young and loving life, a cripple for the years to come.

That ambulance drivers require not a little courage is shown by a letter from one of the drivers.

"Five cars were required urgently at a dressing station immediately behind our lines. Our section was told off for the work. Before starting the leader asked if there were any present who would rather not go, but we all said we would see it through. So off we went, the leading car having a guide on board. We ran along the main road until we were within a quarter of a mile of our trenches, then we turned off and ran along behind them. A rapid fusilade was going on all the time. The driver of the front car waved to us behind to put on speed, at the same time doing so himself. I crouched down behind the wheel, and told my orderly to be ready to grab it 'should anything happen.' The speed increased rapidly, and the body swayed in a dangerous manner as I executed a quick swerve to avoid a dead horse in the road. On we rushed; over a bridge, which I noticed was mined, and a party of sappers were ready to blow it up instantly if required. A few bullets shrieked by, but none came very near to my car. We reached our destination—a road-side cottage, occupied by a medical officer and a few orderlies. I stopped outside for a moment, and the officer came out to speak to me. 'You had better take cover behind those buildings until I am ready with your load,' he said. At that moment there was an appalling crash and a shell screamed by over our heads. I gave a sudden start. 'Er—er—yes, sir; I think I had,' I said. He laughed and returned inside. My discomfiture amused him. I lost no time in acting on his advice.

"About two hundred yards in front were our trenches; I could see the men in them, sitting round their braziers, while others crouched at the loopholes. Behind, our heavy artillery was shelling a German position about a quarter of a mile away. The reports were terrific; after each report we heard a shell pass overhead, and then saw it burst immediately above the German position.

"They hailed me from the dressing station, and I lost no time in running up to it. It was an ordinary peasant's cottage. On the floor lay the wounded; the doctor had just dressed their wounds as well as time would permit. With the sharp reports of the rifles in front, the thunder of the artillery behind, and the explosions of the shells bursting in the distance going on all the time he worked steadily away as though we were in some private surgery on an exceptionally busy day.

"I lost no time in getting my van loaded, and having waited for the others under cover, we rushed back to safety at the same breakneck speed with which we had left it. The cars held the road better when loaded. We soon had our patients safely in the hospital some miles back. I was not sorry when I had finished the job."

After a sharp engagement, wounded men at the field of battle are no longer enemies. Two English soldiers lay near each other, and a few feet away a German soldier desperately wounded. One of the former sighed aloud for a little water. Hearing this the German called out in a faint voice, "Here, here." Thinking that he asked for help, the Englishman who was less severely wounded than his comrade, crawled painfully over to his enemy to see what help could be given, but the German, pointing to his canteen which contained a little wine and water, said, in broken English, "Here, drink; I die," and dying, gave his last drop of water to a wounded enemy. Death makes men brothers again. Barry Pain has beautifully expressed this thought in his "The Army of the Dead:"

Marching upon its way,
So still and passionless,
With faces so serene.

* * * * * * * *

Nor any lust of hate
Now lingering in their eyes,
Who have fulfilled their fate,
Have lost all enmities.

Man's faithful friend, the dog, proves in war his fidelity. Whether or not the idea of using dogs in the finding of wounded originated in England, I do not know, but dogs for this purpose have been trained there. Collies were first chosen, but proved not to be so well adapted for the long ranging necessary, as a cross between the collie and the blood-hound. These faithful animals are trained to trace men by the scent and finding a wounded soldier, stand by him and bark until the stretcher-bearers join them. They are most useful where the ground is covered with a low growth that easily conceals the prostrate forms. In Germany sometime ago an experiment was tried as to their efficiency. A dark night was selected and two hundred men carefully hidden, five hundred stretcher-bearers were ordered out to find them. After two hours time forty still were missing. Two of the trained Red Cross dogs were let loose and in twenty minutes every lost man had been discovered by these clever animals who wore about their bodies a white band on which the Red Cross marked them for its own. France has a national society of ambulance dogs, which trains them not only to find the wounded, but for dispatch carriers and for guard duties. A small fox terrier of this ambulance service during the battle of the Marne trotted out again and again from the trenches where she stayed and discovered one hundred and fifty men who might otherwise have been lost.

In the titanic struggle that overwhelms Europe today the French Red Cross has had to bear a burden almost beyond comprehension. It consists of three independent branches under one central committee, the Society for the Aid of the Military Wounded, the Union of the Women of France, and the Association of French Women. If each of these branches had been placed in charge of a certain definite territory, or had been given a special department of service, there would have resulted fewer complications. The war came so suddenly and on such a tremendous scale that only the most perfectly organized and centrally directed system could have met its immediate needs. In the earlier days certain of our American officers abroad on special duty motored from Paris to the fighting lines in the valley of the Marne. "We came upon a village church," one of them

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A RED CROSS DOG FINDS A WOUNDED MAN

told the story, "and covering all the blood-stained floor lay several hundred wounded men; two or three exhausted surgeons, with almost no supplies, were doing all they could. There was no food and the pangs of hunger were added to the sufferings from the awful wounds. I have seen fighting, not a little of it, but nothing so appalling as this. We rushed to our motor and brought back a loaf of bread left from our scanty luncheon. Breaking it into little pieces, we fed it to the poor fellows. As I stooped to give a few crumbs to one desperately wounded man, the doctor at my side said: 'Better save it for one of the others; he cannot live through the day,' but I could not keep from the dying man the morsel of food for the sake of those who had a better chance of living. We thought this seemed frightful enough, but it was nothing to the horrors we witnessed later in the trenches;" scenes too awful for the officer who knew what war is to be willing to recall and to describe.

When the wounded are numbered by the tens of thousands, every village of any size along the line of evacuation becomes a hospital in itself filled up to more than its utmost capacity. A small town instructed to be prepared for three thousand suddenly finds itself overwhelmed with five thousand. From Vierzon in the earlier days of the war came one day by cable to the American Red Cross the appeal, "twelve hundred gravely wounded French and Germans, four hundred lying on straw, only one surgeon (American), no trained nurses, no medicine, no food, wounded arriving starved and naked, no funds, have seen surgeon who is in despair because committees here can supply nothing, can you cable money to relieve horrible situation."

"The enemy fired on the Red Cross flag," was a frequent accusation at the beginning of a war, not so often heard now. The abuse of the insignia is as strictly guarded against on one side as on the other; it is sacred in its protective power to all of the belligerents alike. But every nation in time of peace should prevent by law the misuse of the emblem, so that men will learn to understand and respect the noble purpose for which it was selected. Misuse in peace leads to abuse in war. During battle the first dressing station is not permitted by the commanding officer to show its flag conspicuously, for by so doing information as to the rear of the army lines is given; therefore, though the location of the inconspicuous emblem may be known by the men of its own forces it is generally unseen by the opposing army whose shells may fall close to it if not actually upon it. These are days when fighting is often done at long range.

Again it must be remembered that the world is made up of the evil as well as the good and that no nation may lay claim to a monopoly of the virtuous. Men and women, too, of the criminal classes have been known to trespass upon a battlefield after the fighting was over, usurping the protection of the emblem that they place upon their arms, and while ostensibly aiding the wounded, in reality rob them and the dead. Such marauders, if caught in the act, are shot on the spot and sometimes this has led to the rumors that a Red Cross nurse has been killed. Killed and wounded some of these nurses have been because they have come within the danger zone, but that this has been done by men conscious of their noble mission is hard to believe. It is true, however, that no army is free from its share of vicious characters, who, given the opportunity, will commit any crime, and war abounds in opportunities for crime. It brings out in some men the primitive brutal passion, that which Symonds calls "blood lust." There never has been a war of any magnitude and there never will be a war when atrocities do not occur. These are part and parcel of war which men back in the peace and happiness of their homes try to blot from their memories. The European soldier in the Boxer trouble who thrust his bayonet through the baby in its mother's arms may be at home a kind and gentle father to his children. After the second Balkan war, official reports were sent to the American Red Cross claiming, on the Bulgarian side, proof of Greek and Serbian atrocities, and from the latter nations' accusations of a like nature against their former allies, the Bulgarians. It is the same old, old story told of today's war by every side, and that will be told again and again until wars cease.

As yet, in France professional trained nursing hardly exists, though a beginning has been made. To make up for this deficiency many of the women of France have taken a few weeks' course with hospital practice to fit themselves for their country's call in case of war. They give their services and during the Moroccan campaign did such excellent work that they received high commendation from the French military authorities who at first had been doubtful of the advisability of utilizing them.

We have stolen a page from one of the English Red Cross doctor's diaries in South Africa; let us borrow one from a French Red Cross nurse's letter written from Casa Blanca in Morocco. Each paints a picture of Red Cross active service.

"On returning at seven with Monsieur de Valence, we were distressed by the spectacle that met our eyes. In the little court at the entrance of the hospital, which was lighted by the clear white moon, litters rested against the Moorish columns, and on each was extended a silent human form. In the operating room lay one unfortunate man terribly wounded in the thigh. Three doctors and two nurses were dressing his wounds. At last, all finished, the hot water bottles in place, and the tea prepared for the sick, the doctors went to dinner and we two remained on duty for the night.

"While watching the poor man so terribly wounded, we noticed that the hemorrhage continued, and that the pulse was very feeble. I called our good sergeant, who raised his head and went for the doctor. It was decided to apply a ligature. What an operation! It is a nightmare to administer chloroform under such conditions. During the operation we gave injections of serum and caffeine, but the weakness was extreme, so much blood had been lost on the way to the hospital. The operation finished, we again took charge of our poor man, not to leave him until the end. During the night he was greatly agitated. Little by little he became more calm, and then, one hand in mine and one in Bertha's, he gave his soul to God, his spirit gently taking flight as we prayed for him. At midnight, while the others were asleep, we had him quietly carried to the reserve tent, so that his comrades might not see him when they woke. I shall never forget that sad little procession. We moved silently among the tents, bathed in the brilliant moonlight, stars over our heads and death in the midst of us, the mystery of death that gives so much pain and sorrow. How one approaches God in despair before such a spectacle! One does not ask to know, nor to reflect, nor to understand—only to believe and to hope."

Did the nurse recall Goethe's words, "Stars silent rest o'er us, Graves under us silent. We bid you to hope."

After most of Belgium had been occupied by the German forces, the Belgian Red Cross remained for a time inactive, but the Belgian army, driven out of its own country, had still need of the Red Cross. On the request of King Albert, General Melis and Doctor Depage reorganized its service and established a large hospital at La Panne, on the coast, in the small northwest corner of the country that still remained unconquered. With it will be always associated the name of Madame Depage, who, returning from a journey she had bravely made alone to America in its interests, gave her life for the wounded soldiers of Belgium when she was lost in the sinking of the Lusitania.

Serbia and Montenegro both have their Red Cross Societies. Dr. Subotitch, vice-president of the Serbian Red Cross, gave to the American Society after the International Conference at Washington, the quaint, bright-colored embroideries he had brought as an exhibit of the gifts of the Serbian peasantry to their society. Two wars in quick succession had exhausted the supplies and resources of the Serbian Red Cross. At the outbreak of the present war there were only four hundred doctors in a population of four million persons, and when more than one hundred of these perished from typhus fever, Serbia was in a desperate state for medical personnel, as well as supplies. The little mountain country of Montenegro, with fifty thousand men under arms, had for its army and its civil population a little more than a score of physicians. Under such conditions as these, the state of the wounded during the earlier days of the war beggars description. Without the aid of the Red Cross, both of allies and of neutrals, not only would the sick and wounded of these armies, without care, have perished by thousands, but multitudes of the civil population would have also died.

For nine months the shadows of war clouds hung over Italy, and the mutterings of the storm gave her warning to prepare. Fortunately for her, she possesses a most excellent Red Cross which has not only proved its efficiency after earthquakes and volcanic eruptions, but which has maintained for years an active and successful preventive campaign against the malarial fever of the Campagna. In the sulphur mines of Sicily and in other parts of the country first-aid instructions have also been part of its work. The society has a large number of hospital trains, each with a personnel ready to mobilize the moment the train is called into active service. There is a close affiliation between the society and the Italian Government, some of whose officials are members of its governing body. This system of Italy's was adopted by the American Red Cross at the time of its reorganization in 1905. Foreseeing the coming danger, the Italian Red Cross has occupied itself for many months in preparation and has so far neither desired nor required much assistance.

Not yet can the story be told of the immense labors and the heroic devotion of the Red Cross of Europe in the present war. It never can or will be told in full. Statistics, lists of institutions, numbers of patients, names of generous donors, will cover the long pages of many reports, but the wealth of human stories that lies back of figures, lists and tables will never all be gathered up. The true history is too vast, too sad, too full of human sorrow and suffering ever to be written into words.

CHAPTER XVII

WITH THE BEST ORGANIZED RED CROSS IN GERMANY. PREPARATIONS BY PEACE ACTIVITIES. THE EMPRESS AUGUSTA FUND. SANITARY COLUMNS. DEPOTS OF SUPPLIES. WOMEN'S UNION OF THE FATHERLAND. THE REICHSTAG LOANS ITS BUILDING. WAR SERVICE. SISTER DORA'S LETTER. THE SOCIETIES OF THE DUAL EMPIRE. THE RED CRESCENT OF TURKEY.

ONE of the marked characteristics of the Teutonic race is thoroughness, and this characteristic is exemplified in the German Red Cross. Shortly after Henri Dunant wrote the "Souvenir de Solferino," a French reviewer expressed the wish "that all who love, glorify and vaunt war could read this book." This sentence fell under the eye of Queen Augusta of Prussia, who, sending for Dunant, said to him, "when I read your book I was so struck with it I handed it to the King. I understood your idea at once. The King returned the book to me after reading it, with the observation that we must make it our care to see that this work succeeds." The Red Prince, Prince Frederick Charles, Grand Master of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, promised the support of that powerful order. The King of Saxony concluded an audience with Dunant with the remark, "Any nation that does not join in this work of humanity deserves to be banned by the public opinion of Europe." With such royal support it was natural that Germany should accept the Red Cross idea and enter into its development with enthusiasm. Beginning work in the war of 1866, the Franco-Prussian conflict, 1870, found the Red Cross of several German states well organized. After these States were welded into the German Empire a Central Committee of the Red Cross was created for direction and supervision of the State branches.

At the beginning of its existence, the Empress Augusta, who took a keen interest in its success, urged the society to carry on peace activities, believing thereby its efficiency would be increased. To commemorate her devotion to the Red Cross the Empress Augusta Fund was created by donations from the German and other societies. The income of this fund has been donated to different societies for special purposes, but this proving not entirely satisfactory, the International Committee asked for further suggestions regarding its use. The American Red Cross proposed that the income of the fund be devoted to the preparation of a comprehensive Red Cross encyclopedia, to be published in German, French and English, and to be called the Empress Augusta Library, which suggestion met with the approval of the German Red Cross, and is now under consideration by the International Committee.

No other Red Cross organization has been so constantly active as the German. All national disasters from a flood, or fire, to an epidemic have found it ready and equipped for relief operations. But not content with these occasional duties, it has undertaken constant daily service of various kinds. For a number of years it has carried on extensive anti-tuberculosis work, maintained numerous sanitoria, day and night camps and other institutions. At Hohenlychen is a most complete establishment for tubercular children with its open-air classes, open-air workrooms where the older girls are taught embroidery by means of which they can later support themselves, and the agricultural colony that provides the boys with training which will enable them to earn their livelihood, at the same time maintain their health. Under the German insurance laws the Red Cross cares for large numbers of working men and women affected by tuberculosis, whose expenses are paid by the insurance bureaus. In the suburbs of Berlin, beside the day camps and vacation colonies, are a thou-

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PREPARING FOOD FOR THE GERMAN WOUNDED NEAR THE FRONT

sand Red Cross working men's gardens. These are large tracts of land divided into small squares, each of which is allotted to a family in which tuberculosis has developed, or whose members show a tendency to this disease. Here the families spend summer days in the fresh air, cultivating the tiny gardens whose produce they are permitted to keep. At the Charlottenburg Motherhouse is a large corps of Red Cross visiting nurses for the benefit of the sick poor, especially those suffering from tuberculosis. A special committee takes charge of the family; if the illness of a father or mother requires sanatorium treatment, so that no anxiety about the home shall interfere with the cure, and still another committee finds work for the convalescent which is not liable to reproduce the disease.

Instructions in first-aid, and the organization of sanitary columns have enabled the German Red Cross to put into active service some eigthy thousand trained men for ambulance, transportation and hospital duty. During time of peace these men of the industrial world have been trained and drilled, the employers providing the uniforms. Summer Sundays are devoted to field exercises, the morning hours being given to demonstrations of war relief, while in the afternoon the drama of a railroad wreck is enacted, or the stirring scenes of flood rescue and relief take place in a river city. The men are taught to improvise splints, stretchers and other useful apparatus from the common objects at hand, as well as the methods of converting freight cars into hospital trains. In the entrance halls of large business buildings and in the rooms of manufacturing plants appear lists of those who have received first-aid training, with their locations, so that they may be quickly summoned in case of accident. The sanitary column men resident in small villages are in frequent demand, for they understand the handling of infectious diseases as well as first-aid.

Immense depots or warehouses are maintained by the German Red Cross. These contain all kinds of supplies from Doeker portable barracks to the work boxes of the nurses. Hospital equipments are so arranged and packed that at a moment's notice a complete outfit filling several cars can be started to the scene of need. One of these hospitals with a personnel was sent to Italy after the earthquake of 1908 and another was in active service during the Boxer trouble in China, and later in Manchuria.

More than seven hundred thousand German women form a special branch of the Red Cross under the name of the Women's Union of the Fatherland. These women have been actively engaged in providing hospital supplies, warm clothing for the troops and work for the needy women. Last autumn each member prepared five presents suitable for a soldier, making a total of three and one-half million gifts that every man who was fighting for the Fatherland might receive a Christmas present.

Considering the general welfare of the nation a patriotic duty the home and the child have become the particular charges of this union. Schools of housekeeping are maintained, girls are taught the care of the baby so that they may be prepared for the duties of motherhood. Infant welfare, visiting nursing and other institutions still further extend this line of work. We can hardly imagine Congress granting the use of the Senate Chamber or the House of Representatives for the conference of any organization, and yet the Reichstag, which is quite as conservative a body, permits the annual meeting of this Red Cross branch to take place within its own particular sanctum. The Empress, who is at its head, addresses the assembly which represents probably the largest association of women in the world organized for purely patriotic and philanthropic work.

At the beginning of August last year when the call to arms went forth in Germany, as promptly and as smoothly as the army itself the Red Cross mobilized. Every other organization in the country that desired to aid was placed under its direction, and the Government instructed all contributions of money and supplies to be sent to it and the knightly orders.

The active relief work is divided into thirteen different departments that may be noted briefly as of suggestive value to all Red Cross organizations: 1. Mobilization for all service. Under this department come the many hospital trains of the society; each train consists of a dining car, a kitchen car, two furnace cars, twenty-six cars for eight patients each, an operating car in the centre of the train and two bandage cars, one at either end. The staff is composed of thirty-six persons, including surgeons, nurses, cooks and hospital orderlies. The Red Cross trains are classified by letter and the Government hospital trains by number. Both are marked on the top and sides with the insignia of a Red Cross on a white ground. 2. The male personnel, consisting of surgeons, physicians, clerks, sanitary column men and male nurses. 3. The supply depot service, embracing not only the large distributing stations, but the collecting depositories in the innumerable cities, towns and villages. 4. The female personnel. This includes three classes: first, the regular professional nurses or sisters, "schwestern," who, after a year's training have passed a State examination; second, the volunteer auxiliary nurses, "hilfschwestern," who have taken six months' training and passed examinations and who act under the regular nurses' supervision; and third, the helpers, "hilferinnen," who after four or six weeks of instruction have passed an examination. These are utilized only in the home military hospitals under the direction of the trained nurse. This personnel is trained in special Red Cross establishments, the value of whose property amounts to over four million, five hundred thousand dollars. Between five and six thousand of these women are at present engaged in active service; and some have already fallen victims to their devotion. One with the western army was killed by a bomb dropped from an aeroplane, and a number have died from typhus and other fevers. 5. Propaganda and collection of money. 6. Aid to prisoners of war, which has developed into a very large department. 7. Work assigned to the Red Cross in Berlin. 8. Exhibitions and fairs for the purpose of raising funds. 9. Care of convalescent soldiers, enabling them to obtain rest cures at different resorts. This department also provides further surgical aid for cripples. 10. Welfare work in three groups; (*a*) for tuberculosis and epidemics; (*b*) aid to mothers and infants; (*c*) assistance to families of soldiers. Besides the preservation of health and the care of families this department looks out for the education of the children, gives necessary legal advice and secures employment for women. 11. Aid to refugees whose homes were destroyed in Poland and those from England, France, Russia and Belgium. 12. Employment for men crippled by war, including their education for work suitable to their present condition. 13. Assistance for those totally incapacitated for work and for the widows and orphans, asylums for the latter and special vocational training.

In spite of all this thoroughness, preparation and system, the appalling demands of sudden war on a gigantic scale are far beyond the abilities of even the most perfectly organized association to meet at first. A letter from one of the German nurses, Sister Dora, tells us something of the early conditions of the wounded and at the same time presents a picture of a nurse's duties near the front that would daunt most of the sentimental women who desire to be sent to nurse close to the battlefield.

"Picture to yourself a railroad station smaller than one of the Doeker barracks. Here we came and found six hundred and fifty wounded. Some of them lay in the streets, some in the fields and some on the steps, dusty, hungry and poorly bandaged. Such a pitiful sight as it was! From the commanding officer of the station and other officials we received a warm welcome. One of them, Lieutenant B., has had to do everything alone, and he was greatly relieved to know that now he could receive our help. Opposite the station was the entrance of a wonderful park with a small guard-house and a tool-shed, of which we took immediate possession. In what condition these were it is impossible to describe. Mountains of dirt and rubbish we had to clear out. The 'Railroad Station Cleaning Company,' as I have christened us, could now proceed with full steam. In a short time the wounded were removed and laid in some confusion in the park driveway. Thank God, it was beautiful weather. The kettle was placed on the fire, coffee made, bread and butter prepared, and within an hour our patients had something to eat and drink. About two hundred were French. The most seriously wounded remained at the station, lying on straw, where they had passed the night. In the evening those that could be moved were carried to a barn and a limekiln, but were forced to use the straw again for their beds. As to our own quarters we had given no thought. Lieutenant B. kindly secured for us a cattle car and covered the floor with straw. About eleven o'clock we turned in but because of the cold we could not sleep. Still this was more comfortable than the ground outside.

"On Monday we found an empty room in a deserted house nearby. Our first move was to obtain a tent large enough for two or three hundred wounded. Unfortunately it soon proved not large enough, as the patients increased day by day. It is impossible to tell you how much there is to do. We are busy from morning until night and it is often ten or eleven in the evening before we can think of our supper, and then we are too tired to eat. We work under great difficulties. Nothing can be bought. A requisition is made for a pig or a cow, that the soldiers kill for us, and of which we make soup. We get vegetables and dig potatoes in the nearby fields. Sister Beta, with the help of a soldier, catches a cow every morning and milks it. In the fruit gardens of the neighborhood we shake down plums, apples and pears, saying simply, 'for the sick.' We have to do all the washing and cleaning ourselves. The coffee mill grinds all day and at the bread machine is always some one occupied, for we need two hundred loaves a day. I do not see how Sister Maria manages always to have enough coffee and soup ready. It is not easy to stand all day over the open fire. We must carry pail after pail of water from across, first a dusty, and now a muddy street. The limekiln is five minutes' walk away. This did not matter in good weather, but now we have constant downpours of rain. It is hard to protect our caps and collars. We never take off our rubbers and are often wet to the skin. In this weather the poor wounded men are arriving, standing or lying in open freight cars, forty crowded together, the seriously wounded on straw on the floor. Rarely is a passenger car seen.

"Now we have a little more time for the serious cases. There is a fearful amount to do in dressing wounds. You can have no idea of the indescribable misery. The sick who at home would be tenderly cared for, here must be left to hobble and limp about as best they can by themselves. Yesterday Sister Albertine and I had a case so badly infected that we had to work with rubber gloves. The poor fellow had gone for eight days without any bandages, and the odor from the wounds was overpowering. Such cases occur every day. The men are so grateful at having their wounds dressed. We must do this independently, as the one doctor cannot take care of all. You cannot imagine under what a stress we are living."

As Austria is a dual kingdom we naturally find there two Red Cross societies—that of Austria, with headquarters at Vienna, and that of Hungary, with its headquarters in its own building, at Budapest. All gifts sent from abroad to the Austrian Red Cross are equally divided between the two organizations. Several Red Cross associations existed in Austria previous to 1880, which at that time were united under one central committee. This society, like the other European societies, has devoted itself to preparation for war relief in the way of trained personnel, ambulance transportation, equipment and supplies. It has taken part in relief operations after disasters, and sent a number of its kitchen wagons to Italy, from which, at Catania, hot meals were served every day to twelve thousand persons. It has made a specialty of relief during epidemics of cholera, smallpox and fever, utilizing its portable barrack hospitals for the prompt isolation of the infectious diseases. One of its devices is a double postcard by means of which the wounded are enabled to reply to the inquiries from their families. These foreign Red Cross societies are constantly receiving large gifts and legacies. A few years ago, in appreciation of the old Emperor's interest, on his eightieth birthday, one of the Austrian Red Cross members made a gift of sixty-six thousand dollars to the society, to be called the Emperor Franz Josef Jubilee Endowment. The estimated total value of the Austrian Red Cross endowment, materials and supplies, amounted before the present war to over five million dollars. The Hungarian Red Cross is similar to that of Austria. It was Count Csekonics, president of this society, who at the Eighth International Conference, in London, in an eloquent speech proposed the creation of the Florence Nightingale Fund, to which the Hungarian Red Cross made the first contribution of $1,000.

The old prejudice against the cross born of the days of the Crusades has made Turkey unwilling to accept this emblem as the insignia both of its army medical service and its volunteer relief society. With the consent of the other signatory powers of the Treaty of Geneva, Turkey has adopted as her symbol the Red Crescent, while at the same time promising to respect the protection of the Red Cross.

This latter emblem, selected out of compliment to Switzerland, was first used by the Canton of Schwyz, which, with Uri and Unterwalden, formed the pact that constituted the beginning of the Swiss federation. The White Cross on the red ground may have been introduced into Helvetian heraldry by one of the early German emperors, who is said to have granted permission to the men of Schwyz to carry a silver cross in their colors because of conspicuous bravery.

It is not probable that the crescent originated with the Turks, as it is not known to the Mohammedans of the Far East. It was the symbol of the city of Byzantium previous to the Moslem conquest, and may be found on the medals struck in the honor of Augustus Trajan. It was adopted by the Turks after the overthrow of the Byzantine empire by Mohammed II, and is now accepted by them as the symbol of their creed.

The Red Crescent Society was organized in 1877 at Constantinople. During the war with Russia, though in its infancy, it received more than a million dollars in money and nearly half a million additional for field hospitals and supplies. After the Italian earthquake it contributed funds for relief, and contributions were also sent to aid the victims of the Armenian massacres. At the time of the first Balkan war the Red Crescent maintained a number of hospitals, for which some of its

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TURKISH WOMEN AT WORK FOR THE RED CRESCENT

equipment and ambulances were purchased in America with the aid of the American Red Cross. During the cholera epidemic the society had a number of the large mosques thrown open for several thousand of the victims, and aided the pathetic multitudes of refugees from the invaded districts who fled to Constantinople, where they had to be sheltered and fed. The society has had many difficulties to overcome and not the least remarkable development it has shown has been the liberty permitted Moslem women in its work.

The Balkan wars, like all wars, brought great suffering to the innocent and helpless noncombatants. In expressing to Dr. Dodd, who had charge of the relief sent to some of these poor Turkish refugees by the American Red Cross, an old Moslem priest gave us a new view of our own antecedents. "An old Turkish hodja named Saduk Effendi called to-day and said he came for the special purpose of asking me to give his thanks to the people in America who are sending help to the poor here. I report his words as nearly as I can: 'May the Lord of the Universe, the God of all men who are all of one family, look graciously upon those who have shown such love and kindness. The servants of God here will always remember and rejoice in their good deeds. How wonderful that a people, who were savages only four hundred years ago, should have awakened to such noble deeds! When shall we have such an awakening!' "

No longer face to face in strife, but side by side in the relief of suffering humanity float the flags of the Red Cross and the Red Crescent.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS COMMITTEE. CONFERENCES. ABUSE OF INSIGNIA. PRISONERS OF WAR. THE WOUNDED. THE MISSING. SWITZERLAND'S SERVICE. INSPECTION OF PRISON CAMPS. HOLLAND AS A REFUGE. WHAT THE RED CROSS MEANS TO SOME CHINESE.

NOT infrequently the expression "the International Red Cross" is used as if this were the name of some definite organization. A certain so-called nurses' training school has advertised that it would bestow upon its graduates the international order of the Red Cross. Such an order does not exist, nor is there any international organization of the Red Cross except the International Committee of Geneva. Each country that has agreed to the Treaty of Geneva organizes its society according to plans best adapted to its own government, people, and conditions. These societies are as independent, one of the other, as are the nations to which they belong, but what is required of each is official authorization of its own government to enable it to secure the recognition of the governments of the other powers. In time of war the belligerent nations are not called upon to grant protection to any volunteer relief association which has not been duly authorized to act in this capacity by its respective government. To pass upon what constitutes official authorization required a judicial committee to study, report upon the credentials, and recommend the recognition of the societey. An International Committee, composed of representatives of many nations, would prove a cumbersome body, too scattered to meet frequently and to act promptly. For this reason, mainly, it was agreed that a committee of nine Swiss, residents of Geneva, and men of prominence, should constitute the International Red Cross Committee. From 1864 until his death in 1910, Monsieur Gustave Moynier, to whom so much is due for the origin of the Red Cross, was its president. Since then the position has been ably filled by Monsieur Gustave Ador. After the International Committee has approved of the credentials, it notifies the Swiss Government to that effect. It becomes then the duty of that Government to transmit to the governments of the other signatory Powers such notification as will establish the status of the society in question.

The International Committee has also been of inestimable value as a medium of communication between the societies. At its own expense it issues special circulars of general information upon subjects of mutual interests and publishes a quarterly bulletin in French, containing reports upon the activities of the various associations.

Every five years there is held an International Red Cross Conference, at which are represented not only the societies, but the governments and the Knightly Orders of St. John of Jerusalem and of Malta. These conferences have been held in a number of different capitals, the departments of foreign affairs extending the government's invitations and those of the society being sent out by the International Committee. Occasionally the holding of the conferences have been interfered with because of a state of war, but the majority of them have taken place at the appointed time; that of 1902 was held at Petrograd; in 1907 the Eighth Conference met in London, and in 1912 the first conference to take place outside of Europe accepted the invitation of the American Red Cross and assembled at Washington. At these conferences there are discussed questions of international diplomatic importance, such as whether or not societies of neutral countries should be permitted to render aid to noncombatants in besieged places, matters pertaining to the establishment of bureaus of prisoners, regulations concerning Red Cross duties in naval warfare, legislation for the protection of the insignia, and kindred subjects. On the other hand there are also discussed such practical matters as the establishment of depots of supplies, methods of transportation, evacuation of wounded, training of Red Cross nurses, reports on war and peace activities with the lessons to be drawn therefrom, and the utilization of the income of special funds. In connection with these conference exhibitions are held illustrative of Red Cross work, and also of articles entered for competition for the Empress Marie Feodorovna prizes. At the London conference Professor Louis Renault, a well known French authority on international law, emphasized the importance of legislation in each country for the protection of the insignia of the Red Cross. After quoting a paragraph of the treaty, he followed with a vigorous appeal to all nations to carry out by legislation their obligations. "In Article 23 is stated a very clear principle, 'the emblem of the Red Cross on a white ground and the words "Red Cross" or "Geneva Cross" can only be used whether in time of peace or war to protect or designate sanitary formations and establishments, the personnel and material protected by the convention.' Herein is expressed a positive international duty. The emblem consecrated by the Convention of 1864, by the glorious service it has since rendered, cannot be turned aside from its humanitarian instincts. It will be respected only if there is no possible misuse in its employment. There is in this a national interest of the first importance. It is necessary in each country to proceed to a serious examination of conscience and to a research of legislation to see if it is or is not sufficient to suppress these designated abuses. A solemn engagement was entered into at Geneva. It should be kept. The honor and the interest of each country demanded it."

Professor Renault was right. We cannot expect to see this emblem used for trade-marks, for advertising, for Red Cross laundries, barber shops, or even for the motors of doctors, and the ambulances of regular hospitals, and expect a soldier to understand and respect its special, sacred purpose and protective powers. In 1905 Congress passed a law prohibiting within United States territory the use of this insignia by any but the United States army and navy medical services, and the American Red Cross, under penalty of fine or imprisonment. Unfortunately, the law was not made retroactive, as it has been made in England and other countries, and certain firms, before protection was legally provided, disregarded the purpose of this sacred and humanitarian emblem and appropriated it for a trademark or for advertising purposes. A number of such firms on realizing the wrong done by such an abuse of the insignia voluntarily relinquished it, but others still utilize the symbol. Public interest may by its strong disapproval of this selfish abuse of the Red Cross emblem, help to compel its disuse. The American Medical Association, which employed the emblem as its insignia previous to 1905, upon its attention being called to such misuse, promptly voted to adopt another insignia for the profession. The American Hospital Association also decided to abolish the use of the red cross upon hospital ambulances and the green cross has been substituted. I have dwelt somewhat at length on this abuse of the Red Cross, both because our international honor demands its protection and because every misuse tends to nullify its humanitarian purpose.

The idea of organizing some intermediary between prisoners of war and their families is not a new one. The first manifestation of its conception in any definite form was due to Benjamin Franklin, who, in the treaty of 1785 between the United States and Prussia, foresaw the eventual creation of commissions charged with the duty of assisting prisoners of war. During the Napoleonic wars some generous women of Frankfort provided aid both for the French and German prisoners. Later Prince Demidoff, during the Crimean war, undertook such aid and urged upon the Convention of Geneva its consideration. The treaty, however, embraced within its provisions only such prisoners as were sick and wounded. At the time of the Franco-Prussian war a prisoners' international committee was organized with headquarters at Basle, and later other bureaus at Lille and Brussels were established. Agitation in regard to the matter continued and a special treaty and association of the Blue Cross were advocated. Finally, in 1899, the Convention of The Hague adopted a provision recognizing societies for aid to prisoners of war. Special organizations for this purpose did not appear practicable. Monsieur du Payrat, in his report on the subject, presented at the Washington Conference by General Michal, said truly, "The idea of succoring the wounded may be associated with victory, whereas the notion of prisoners is hardly inseparable from that of defeat, and a nation does not care to acknowledge in advance that it may be vanquished."

The Red Cross societies have, therefore, adopted this additional duty of aiding the prisoners of war using the International Committee of Geneva or representatives of neutral societies as intermediaries. It is an important fact that, during the Russo-Japanese war the bureau of prisoners in these two countries carried on direct communications without requiring an intermediary. War had broken all other bonds; those of diplomacy, of commerce and of the postal service; but one bond was stronger than war itself—the bond of the Red Cross. Speaking at London of what these bureaus accomplished, Monsieur Martens, a noted international lawyer and head of the Russian Red Cross prisoners' bureau, said: "As under the Red Cross flag there can be no bitterness, and that justice should be rendered to all, I feel it my duty to inform this conference that the states at war gave all necessary aid in furnishing the desired information; and a fact extraordinary in the annals of international relations, in spite of the conflict the relations between the Red Cross of the two countries at enmity never ceased to be most correct and amiable during the entire war. The Red Cross exists in all countries of the world for the unfortunates. All these turn their eyes to its flags, and I believe if the prisoners of war are not wounded and sick, they are still unfortunates who have fallen on the field of honor, having been forced to lay down their arms. I believe that they have the right to assistance, to the succor, and the sympathy not only of their own nation but of all nations, if they carry their arms worthily."

The heartrending anxiety undergone by the relatives of soldiers who are wounded and prisoners is only partly assuaged by the first clause of the treaty "that all the sick and wounded officers and men must be respected and cared for without distinction of nationality by the belligerent in whose hands they are." The lists of the dead are also to be exchanged, and nations may mutually agree to restore the wounded on the battlefield or such as they do not desire to retain. At present several of the countries have agreed to exchange prisoners unfit for further military duty, and this is being done through neutral countries. The purpose of the prisoners' bureaus is to exchange and give out information and to facilitate communications between prisoners and their families. Of this work in Russia Monsieur Martens said: "Is it necessary to recall what tears were dried by the work of this bureau when it was able to give good news of the Russian prisoners in Japan? Is it not superfluous to demonstrate further this great humanitarian work which has developed under the flag of the Red Cross?" The treatment of prisoners of war marks the national degree of civilization. The kindness and courtesy extended by Japan to the Russian prisoners was an honor to the people of Nippon. It may be recalled when Port Arthur fell that in courtesy to the defeated garrison, though the Russian flag was lowered the Japanese flag was not raised until all the garrison had left.

At Arlington and others of our national cemeteries stand thousands of small square marble stones bearing only a number, that mark the graves of many a brave soldier reported among the missing. Distant as we are from the European conflict, the American Red Cross has received letters and telegrams begging for its aid in tracing some missing officer or soldier. It has sought information from the International Bureau at Geneva and from the prisoners' bureau of the Red Cross societies. But in every case save one has come back the message "not found." Shoulder to shoulder with many of their fallen comrades, these "missing" may lie in the long trenches, the graves of the unknown dead. One was found as a prisoner after six months' search, alive and well, in the heart of Siberia.

The Bureau of Prisoners of the International Committee of Geneva has made countless efforts to obtain complete lists of all prisoners. In this it has not always been successful. If one state doubted the good faith of another to the agreement, it immediately took steps to retaliate and declined to report further. Reciprocity of kindly treatment will result as well as reprisals for injustice.

Switzerland, who herself has suffered greatly from the war, has played a magnanimous part in this humanitarian service. Her government has granted the franking privilege to the thousands of letters that go daily through her mails for the prison camps. Hundreds of willing volunteers have given their services for the postal work, and not only letters but gifts and money are constantly forwarded. Helvetia stands in the form of a noble woman with one hand outstretched to a multitude of sad-faced women saying, "Give; it is for thy son," and with the other towards a group of soldier prisoners with the words, "Take; it is from thy mother."

Monsieur Eugster for the International Committee, with the Spanish Ambassador and a representative of the German Red Cross, inspected a large number of camps in Germany, where nearly a million French, Russian, Belgian and English prisoners are confined. In his report he regrets that certain papers expressed disapproval of his statements because they did not confirm untrue information or generalizations from an occasional occurrence. A prominent Frenchman said "a neutral spectator of such a war cannot see things from the same point of view as a belligerent engaged in the strife," and Monsieur Eugster justly replied, "if a neutral did, he would no longer be neutral." He was permitted to go everywhere and to hold absolutely free intercourse with the prisoners, often entirely alone, so that they might feel quite at liberty to confide to him any grievances. The Germans have been forced to limit bread consumption because of the impossibility of importing food supplies. However, the prisoners were permitted as large an allowance as the people of Germany, and though this was done the deprivation was felt and complained of by the French soldiers, many of whom were accustomed to depend upon bread as their main article of diet. The Russians were satisfied both with the quality and the quantity of the food supplied. Beyond this food question there was little complaint made by prisoners in the German camps. The men were encouraged to inaugurate courses of study, teachers being found among their own numbers; concerts and theatrical performances were permitted, and religious services provided.

The greatest suffering in these prison camps is due to a cause little realized by the general public. In most camps material needs are sufficiently well taken care of, but nostalgia, that longing for country, for home and for family, particularly among men of the untraveled class, produces a sense of misery difficult to overcome. Men in armies distant from their homes, and yet not prisoners, often become insane from homesickness. No one can see these prison camps, no matter how well administered, where thousands are in exile, without experiencing the emotion expressed by Monsieur Eugster: "Human destinies, impressionalist pictures of the latest universal history, have passed before my eyes. They are engraved ineffaceably upon my soul. What an atrocity is war! My heart bleeds, and from this bleeding heart arises the question addressed to the heart of the noblest of these two noble nations, 'How long must this appalling war endure!' "

Colonel Marval, a medical officer of the Swiss army, undertook for the International Committee a tour of inspection of the prison camps in France and North Africa. He, too, was permitted to talk alone with the prisoners and received every courtesy in the fulfilling of his task. Colonel Marval, like his compatriot, regretted the sensational reports of the press and expressed the hope that his statements would serve to allay the anxieties of those whose husbands, brothers and sons were prisoners of war. Both of these men were actuated by the determination to tell only the full and entire truth.

Under cold, gray skies and drenching rains that were in keeping with his attitude of mind, for he, too, felt the sadness of this duty before him, Colonel Marval started on his first mission to the camps in Brittany, six in number. One of these, for officers, was found in a chateau, the food, at a fixed price, being brought from a nearby hotel. Under The Hague Convention those who are prisoners receive from the government of the country in which they are confined the pay of their rank. After the war is over this will be remitted by their own country. At Montfort an old convent served for the prison, where the men were fairly comfortable and were permitted every nine days to go to a nearby stream to bathe. At the next camp the men were first in tents, but later excellent barracks were built. In all these prisons, as a rule, the prisoners who are tailors, make the men's garments and the shoemakers their shoes. To deprive men in confinement of occupation and work is a cruelty emphasized by a circular issued on prisoners by the International Committee. After an inspection of the camps in Brittany those of the islands were next visited. Because of the difficulty of escape more liberty was allowed to the prisoners here. Religious services in their own tongue were generally provided in the camps. At one place Colonel Marval found a merry group of men arrayed in weird costumes prepared for a theatrical performance. His second tour of inspection led him into quite a different field,—the prison camps in Tunis and Algeria. Some of these were in the old Spanish forts of the seacoast towns, others in the barracks of the mountain districts, and still others in tent colonies on the oasis of the desert. The lodgings of the men, the water, food, and clothing were all examined and noted in the report. If vermin was discovered this was mentioned; what entertainments were permitted; what religious services were provided, and if the mails were delivered promptly were other matters investigated. Colonel Marval reports that the men, though given every opportunity to speak frankly, were rarely inclined to complain; and he found that the camps were well administered.

Many of the German and Austrian prisoners taken by Russians in the early autumn of last year were sent to Siberia where, in some parts, the large empty barracks could be utilized. Unfortunately having been made prisoners during the warm season, few of them had clothing suitable to the Siberian winter climate, and much suffering resulted. An appeal for their aid came to the American Red Cross from Peking. Funds were transmitted immediately and hospital supplies purchased and forwarded with donated clothing from San Francisco. At the request of our Red Cross, Dr. Reinsch, the American Minister at Peking, appointed special representatives who were permitted by the Russian authorities to visit certain districts. The cause of much of the suffering was due to the lack of preparation, and the large number of prisoners that were sent. The Russian authorities were generally kindly but without supplies or time to secure them at the first. A complete and interesting report was sent to the American Red Cross by its representatives. On the journey to Irkutsk, the report says, "We passed many troop trains which were carrying prisoners. We stopped at a station where a troop train had halted, and we had an opportunity to speak to the men, among whom there were Germans, Austrians, Hungarians and Turks. They had been captured in November in a wounded condition, and having recovered were being sent to some camp in the maritime provinces. They were rather poorly clad, in many instances, and some looked sick, but on the whole said they were quite comfortable." The military authorities and the Russian Red Cross offered to co-operate in the distribution of the supplies the American Red Cross had forwarded for the prisoners. The report continues: "The journey from the field of battle to the camps in Siberia is a long one. The prisoners were transported in the ordinary troop trains which are used for the Russian soldiers. Each car has four small windows, one in each corner, and two doors, with a stove in the middle of the car. At each end of the car are three platforms, one above the other, on which the men slept. The lower platform reaches from the doors to the end of the car. The one above is a little narrower and the top one is narrower still. The same arrangement is made at the other end of the car. Each car accommodates from thirty to thirty-six men. We have seen thirty-six Russian soldiers in big boots and heavy sheepskin coats pile into such a car with all their luggage. The prisoners not having any luggage would have a little more room in which to mcve. The Russian soldier in sheepskin and felt boots, with the help of the stove, manages to be fairly comfortable in these cars, but with poorly clad men who are not accustomed to such a rigorous climate the results have been sometimes serious. Those who are fortunate enough to get upper berths manage to keep warm, but those who were below had their legs and feet frostbitten. The Turks who had lately been shipped out in large numbers suffered the most. When the above conditions are taken into consideration, most of the suffering can be explained. As far as we could learn, very little suffering is attributable to cruelty on the part of the Russian soldiers or people. On the whole they are kind-hearted and friendly."

The interned civilian prisoners also suffered from the cold when they had to walk any distance in severe weather. The committee recommended that soap, water and a change of clothing be provided, so that the men could rid themselves of the disease-carrying vermin that threatened a serious epidemic. The hospital service was good on the whole. Of the fifteen hundred patients at Irkutsk, four hundred were Germans.

The Russian Government has courteously consented again to permit American Red Cross representatives to visit the Siberian prison camps, and further funds and supplies will be sent. The Russian Government has asked the American Red Cross to assist the Rusian prisoners in Germany. This will be carried on with the co-operation and aid of the German Red Cross.

The few countries of Europe that had not become involved in this widespread conflict have been so fearful of being drawn into the vortex of strife that their Red Cross societies have necessarily been limited in the aid they could offer. They have done what they could, notably the societies of Switzerland and Holland; the former as we have seen, especially for prisoners of war and for the repatriation of refugees and wounded. Holland has cared for thousands of destitute and panic-stricken Belgians who fled to the refuge their kindly and generously hospitable neighbor offered.

From South Africa, Corea and China the American Red Cross has received contributions for its war relief fund. China has only lately organized a Red Cross, and its purpose is not fully understood by all of her people. The women missionaries, nursing in the hospital during the revolutionary days that marked the change from the monarchy to the republic, were frequently asked by the wounded men, "Are you not afraid to be here?" The reply, "No, we are under the Red Cross flag," was heard with some amazement. When an attack was made upon a certain town where there was a large mission school, the teachers, fearing for the safety of the children, marched them all to the railroad station under the Red Cross flag, which was respected by the soldiers of both sides. Complaint was made by some Americans that certain Chinese had asked to buy the protection of the Red Cross and that others had brought all their treasures and put them in the hospitals where the Red Cross flag floated, and which they noticed were not attacked. Even this ignorance seems a wonderful homage to the Red Cross. In their danger and distress these people of China turned to it for protection; a prophecy of the far distant day when some great flag of federated nations and of human brotherhood may bring to the battle-weary world universal peace.

CHAPTER XIX

THE EUROPEAN WAR AND THE AMERICAN RED CROSS. THE GATHERING OF THE STORM CLOUDS. THE GERMAN DECLARATION AUGUST FIRST. OFFERS OF AID BY THE AMERICAN RED CROSS ON THE FIFTH. PREPARATIONS. THE WHITE SHIP OF MERCY. THE WEARERS OF THE BRASSARD. LIFE ON BOARD. THE QUESTIONING SEARCHLIGHT. ARRIVAL AT FALMOUTH. FUNDS AND SUPPLIES.

In the southeastern part of Europe lies the group of small countries that for long has threatened the peace of the entire continent. The act of a Serbian fanatic in the assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne brought matters to a crisis and launched Europe into the greatest and most terrible war of history. For many years the thunder clouds had been gathering, the mutterings of the Balkan wars had made thoughtful people apprehensive, and the flashes of suspicion and resentment that played like summer lightning across the skies, gave warning of the tempest that was soon to come. The causes of this mighty conflict are far deeper and more complex than our people generally understand.

The Red Cross, it has been said, is even more blind than justice, and amidst accusations and recriminations by word and pen, amidst the suffering, misery and death of battlefield and devastated lands, it moves undisturbed on its merciful mission. It hears and heeds only the pitiful cry of humanity and cannot stop to question why.

Austria had declared war on Serbia and Russia began the mobilization of her armies. August first came the German declaration and France joined her eastern ally. Ere long the onrushing storm burst over Belgium and England, too, and all Europe trembled in its fury.

Back to their posts of duty there came such of the American Red Cross officers as, after a busy year, were seeking a little rest. A joint meeting of its International and War Relief Boards was held and a decision reached to offer to every country the aid of our trained personnel and the contribution of hospital supplies. Acting in strict accord with the Treaty of Geneva, this offer was made with the consent of the United States Government and communicated by the State Department to the governments of the belligerent nations. By all the offer was accepted, with the exception of Belgium, which at that time desired only supplies and did not ask for the personnel until in the spring of 1915. Japan later declined any assistance, as her own great Red Cross organization was able to meet all demands upon it, and Italy, when it entered into the conflict, asked for only certain supplies.

At the request of the Secretary of War, the services of the National Director, Mr. Bicknell, were loaned to aid the Assistant Secretary in his mission abroad for the benefit of American refugees, and later Mr. Bicknell's services were given to the Rockefeller Foundation for noncombatant relief in Europe.

Plans were immediately inaugurated to secure funds and supplies, and make ready the personnel. Day and night factories worked to provide absorbent cotton, bandages and anæsthetics. The sudden demand for such articles came from foreign governments as well as the Red Cross, and with plants adapted only to normal conditions, it was not easy to fill the orders that overwhelmed the manufacturers. The spirit of helpfulness that the Red Cross met on every side was its greatest asset. The Relief Board issued an appeal calling attention to the contributions sent by the European Red Cross societies during our war with Spain, and asking for a generous response to enable our Red Cross to do its duty. In this appeal the people were told that "contributions may be designated by the donors for the aid of any special country, and will be used for the country designated." Yet, in spite of this assurance, many persons persisted in asserting that those desiring to aid a special country could not intrust funds and supplies to the Red Cross, which would use contributions only for all. Every donation, whether in money or supplies, designated for a special country has been sent to the country specified. The Austrian Red Cross reported to the American Ambassador at Vienna that one case received by it was intended for France and wished instructions what to do with it. In handling many thousands of cases, it is not strange that a box should go astray. In this case another box was added to the next French shipment from the undesignated cases, to take the place of the one which was sent to Austria by mistake.

President Wilson, as president of the American Red Cross, added his appeal to that of the boards. In reply to these appeals money soon began to be received, not as rapidly, however, as the funds that had been sent to the Red Cross in the past for great disasters. For this there were various reasons. Americans were stunned by the war and many resented it. It threatened serious business depression and caused much suffering from lack of employment at home. Still the society was never hampered by any lack of necessary funds.

On the outbreak of the war, all shipping became so uncertain that even the United States Government was compelled to send men-of-war to Europe to render aid to our own citizens and to prepare a number of large army transports for passenger service. Because of this situation and because of the complications due to the changing of open ports in the early days of the war the Red Cross found it advisable to secure its own ship None was offered free of charge except one by the Hamburg-American Line. Fortunately Congress was in session and promptly passed a law permitting the ship to register from New York, fly the American flag and take the name of the "Red Cross." This was against all precedent, but barriers of precedent break away before the appeal of the Red Cross.

In the meantime, through the aid of one proficient in war relief work from her devoted service during the Spanish-American war, Mrs. William K. Draper, secretary of the New York Red Cross Chapter, there was obtained the very generous loan of a large warehouse from Mr. Irving T. Bush, at his Brooklyn terminal, for the collection of supplies. For days car after car unloaded the vast store of supplies into this immense warehouse. Hundreds of bales in long rows, hiding beneath burlap and iron bands, the cotton that was to dress such innumerable wounds, brought a realizing sense of the horrors to those who gazed at this mute evidence. Already women throughout the country were organizing into societies to roll bandages and make hospital garments and refugee clothing. These began to accumulate at the warehouse. At Red Cross headquarters a special department for advice, patterns, samples, and the little Red Crosses to be sewed on the garments had to be created to answer thousands of inquiries and requests.

While the important work of collecting supplies was proceeding, the Medical Bureau and Nursing Service were occupied with the personnel. The Medical Bureau had not yet perfected its plans for the enrollment of medical men for active service, and at that short notice it was not an easy matter to secure surgeons of experience and ability so situated as to be able to leave their private practice for a long foreign tour of duty. The War Department, because of the question of neutrality, was not willing to permit army surgeons to undertake this special service. It is difficult for persons not familiar with the Red Cross and also of the status of the medical service in time of war to grasp the fact of the absolute neutrality of both. Major Patterson, the army medical officer detailed as Chief of the Red Cross Medical Bureau, labored earnestly to overcome the difficulties in his way, and was fortunate in obtaining a number of faithful, able and excellent surgeons, though a few were not up to the high standard of the Red Cross. These surgeons were provided with the regular forest-green uniform of our Red Cross service that has been approved by the War Department. Each unit was composed of a surgeon director, two assistant directors and twelve nurses, one of whom acted as supervising nurse.

The organization of the Nursing Service that Miss Delano had developed with more than six thousand enrolled graduate trained nurses, proved its splendid efficiency. By means of the local committee, volunteers from this service were called for, and from among the number who offered those of the units were selected. To avoid confusion as to passports and questions of neutrality, only American-born surgeons and nurses were sent. The nurse's uniform consisting of a blue hat, cape, sweater, six wash dresses, ten aprons, four caps, six collars and her equipment of a heavy brown blanket and a duffle-bag (for trunks were not permitted), cost less than $40. Later in the colder climates heavy coats were provided, and in Serbia special vermin-proof uniforms after the outbreak of typhus fever. Every surgeon and nurse were required to pass physical examinations and be vaccinated for smallpox and typhoid. Miss Helen Scott Hay, who was to sail for the organization of the training school at Sofia, was unable to do so as the war postponed the plan and, therefore, she was sent as the superintendent of nurses. Miss Hay has since gone to Sofia and is now assisting the Queen in the organization of the training school there. Practical instructions as to their personal welfare, cautions against sending in their letters any information that the countries they serve might not wish given out, were issued to the nurses. The serious obligations that they had to assume and the fact that the honor of the American Red Cross and of their country was entrusted to them for the faithful fulfilment of their duties, was strongly emphasized.

War conditions added many perplexities to those who had the ship problem to solve. From the retired personnel of the United States Navy the officers were obtained, and Admiral Aaron Ward, formerly Naval Attache at Paris, Berlin and Petrograd, took charge of the arrangements in Europe, joining the ship on her arrival at Falmouth. At the last moment certain diplomatic questions arose over the nationality of some of the crew. Nothing was to be done by the American Red Cross that was not acceptable to the countries it was seeking to aid. Therefore, the sailing was delayed until everything could be satisfactorily adjusted. "Why was money wasted in decorating the ship?" was one of the many strange questions that puzzled Red Cross officers. What decorations were meant? Finally it was discovered that painting her white with a broad red band and the Red Cross on the smokestacks were thought to be decorations. The Treaty of The Hague, which extends to naval warfare, the provisions of the Treaty of Geneva, stipulate that such ships should be painted white with a red straik, and fly the Red Cross flag. The hospital ships of belligerents are painted white, but to distinguish them from the ships of the Red Cross Societies, the former have a green straick instead of red, but fly the same insignia. The so-called decorations of our Red Cross ship were done in obedience to a treaty obligation, and to provide her with the protection of these neutral colors. This was not the first time our American Red Cross had sent forth ships of mercy carrying succor to those in need, but never before had one set sail under war conditions, and on all previous occasions the Red Cross flag had been flown only to announce their mission as no protection was required.

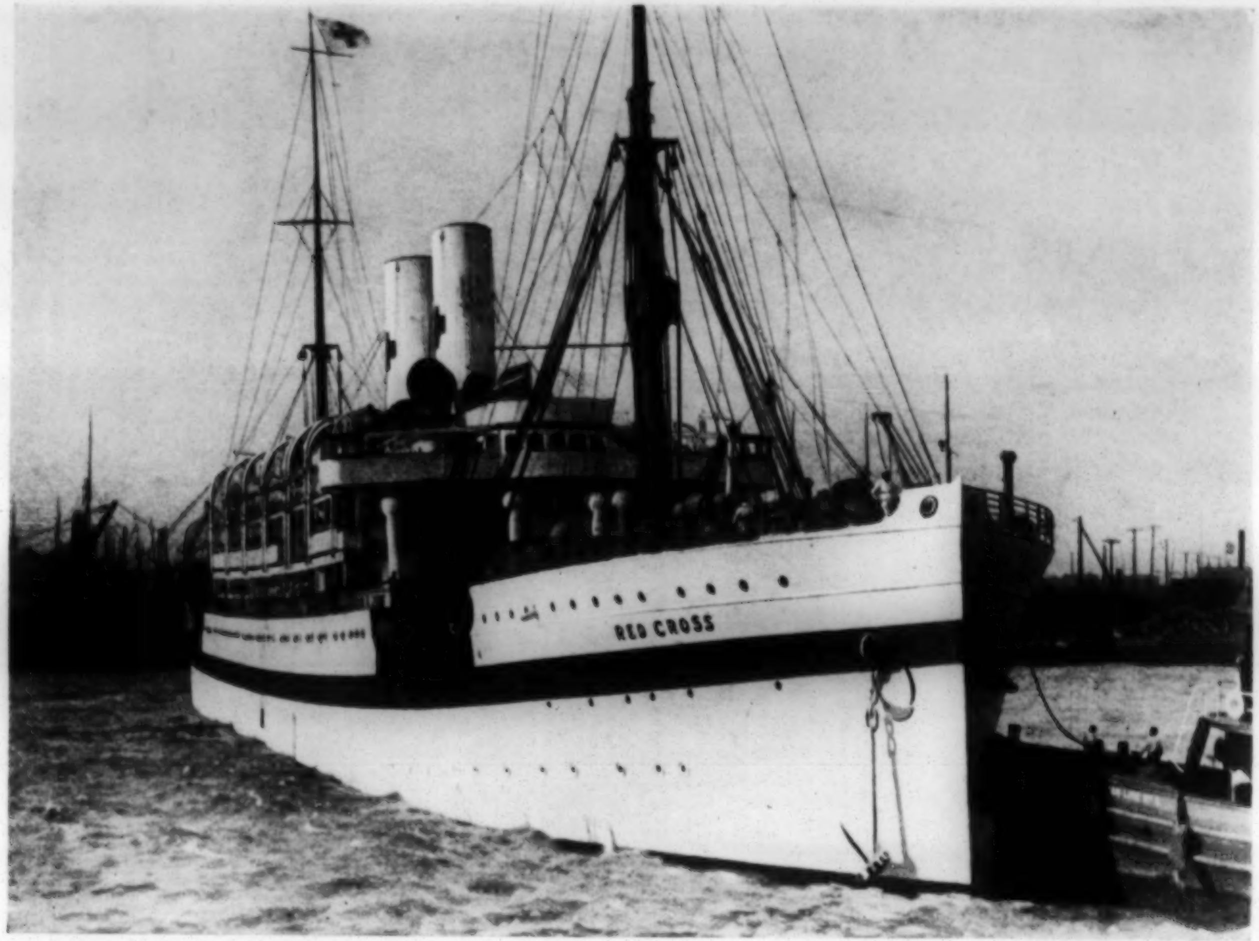
Then came busy days loading the large accumulation of supplies when even the stevedores labored on Sunday to complete the work. Those for each country were stored away in reverse order, England's last, and with her's Russia's, as those for Petrograd had to go with the personnel across England, the North Sea, Norway, Sweden, the Gulf of Bothnia and Finland before reaching their destination. Next came France, and the ones to be loaded first were for Belgium, Germany and Austria, which were landed at Rotterdam, the last port. With each unit went an army surgical equipment, and these the doctors were instructed to keep with them, as personal baggage, for a surgeon without his instruments was a useless individual in days when every instrument was already in demand and there were not enough. Shocking stories of operations performed with ordinary saws and knives, supplemented by automobile tools, and without anæsthetics, made one shudder over the unnecessary sufferings and eager to rush the greatly-needed supplies across the water.

When the date of sailing was decided the local committees were sent notices to forward to the selected nurses, telling each what day to arrive in New York and what hour to report at the New York Red Cross office to be supplied with equipment; certain hours being assigned to each group of avoid confusion. The entire corps mobilized promptly according to instructions.

It was found not practicable to send the ship to the Mediterranean, so the Serbian unit went by Greek ship to the Piraeus and thence to Saloniki. Good courage and uncomplaining spirit were shown by every member of this little group that sailed on September 8th on a long, slow voyage by a second-class ship loaded with a large cargo and more than a thousand Serbian reservists. It was not clean; there were no baths for the nurses and the usurpation of their staterooms by the rats compelled some of them to sleep on deck. It was all in a day's work and neither the Director, Dr. Ryan, who had known the horrors of Mexican revolutions, nor Miss Gladwin, the supervising nurse, who had seen war in the Far East, uttered a protest. This spirit, manifested by the entire group, gave promise of the splendid service they were later to perform.

On Saturday, September 12th, down the busy peaceful waters of the North River glided the "Red Cross," lining her rails were long rows of surgeons in their green uniforms and nurses in the grey gowns and dark blue capes. The beautiful white ship with her band of red, the fluttering emblem of the Red Cross at her foremast and the American flag (presented by the City of Baltimore) at her stern, proclaimed her mission of mercy. The groups on the boats cheered her as she passed, the flags of many nations flying from great steamers dipped their colors in salute. No matter what the nationality, all were united in wishing her God speed on her voyage, and every heart that watched her was touched with the divine light of mercy. As the white ship passed the towering statue in the harbor, Liberty for a moment seemed to grasp in her uplifted hand the flag of the Red Cross that floated at the masthead and to hold it forth a token of America's sympathy for war-stricken Europe.

Life on board was not to be a lazy existence, but a busy one of active practice for future duties. Major Patterson demonstrated to the surgeons the use of the field army equipment and drilled them in its employment. The nurses were divided into many classes and certain hours of the day set aside for lessons and practice. The treatment of wounds, bandaging and practical exercises were carried on under the surgeons as instructors. Lessons in the metric system and in languages were part of their studies. Adopting the European custom, the nurses dropped the formal use of the last name and took the gentler one of "sister." Max Mueller says the old Aryan word for sister meant comforter. If this be true, no name better suits the calling of these devoted women.



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THE GOOD SHIP "RED CROSS" SETTING SAIL ON ITS VOYAGE OF MERCY

The good ship was not to go unquestioned, and the first night out from New York there came from a watchful British cruiser a signal of inquiry. Ready with her answer the red lights in the shape of the Geneva Cross flashed back the message of her mission. In the name of suffering humanity she sailed on her way without let or hindrance. Again and again, as she approached the carefully-guarded English coast, battleship and cruiser asked the question, and again the answer granted her safe conduct to her destination.

The British Government had designated Falmouth as her English port. There a dozen surgeons and fifty of the nurses landed, the units for England and Russia, while lighters took the bales and boxes of supplies on shore. So accustomed are we to the well-regulated days of peace that we find it difficult to understand the confusion of war's strange condition. Why our units were not always promptly placed and why they had not immediately a large number of wounded entrusted to their excellent care, were questions not infrequently heard. In reading foreign reports we find nurses of the belligerents themselves waiting and waiting for definite stations and longing for active duty. The city hospitals to which we are accustomed know the average number of daily patients, and staff and nurses are provided for this normal amount, but war presents an entirely different proposition. A furious battle rages for days in a certain locality, and the hospitals in the vicinity are overwhelmed with the influx of patients. Then the fighting shifts to another point. Those in the first hospitals mostly recover and its wards are half empty, the nurses sitting with idle hands. While the service near the new scene of conflict formerly with little to do is now in its turn overpowered with thousands of wounded the endless stream of ambulances deposit at its doors.

Before the "Red Cross" sailed, instructions had been received that Brest was to be her French port, but on her arrival in England this order was changed to Pauillac, the port of Bordeaux. So, turning westward and then southward, she proceeded on her way answering the many queries of the sentry ships with the emblem of her service. At that time the French Government was established at Bordeaux, and there Admiral Ward found the President of the French Red Cross, the Marquis de Vogüe, academician, diplomatist, archæologist, and above all philanthropist, who, in spite of his more than eighty years, has again taken up the burden of war relief. His daughter, Viscountess Benoist d'Azy, who was a representative of the French Red Cross at the Ninth Conference when her husband was Naval Attaché at Washington, is serving as a nurse in a Red Cross hospital near the front. A curious little incident occurred somewhat later. A former treasurer of the American Red Cross and Assistant Treasurer of the United States Treasury Department, Mr. Piatt Andrew, was driving an ambulance for the collection of French wounded. Arriving one day at Dunkirk, he stopped before the doors of a Red Cross hospital to leave his wounded men. As he carefully lifted out a stretcher, a nurse grasped the handles at the other end. Suddenly, glancing at her, he saw to his surprise the nurse was Madame Benoist d'Azy. How little had either thought as they dined and danced in Washington they would meet again in France in the service of the Red Cross.

From Pauillac the Red Cross continued her voyage to Rotterdam. After she had left the French port, Great Britain pronounced certain portions of the Channel and North Sea danger zones because of mines, but English officers were on the lookout for our ship, and meeting her, a special pilot was put on board to take her through the perils by sea. At Rotterdam she received a most cordial welcome from the good people of Holland. The Royal Consort, Prince Henry, President of the Red Cross of The Netherlands, went on board himself to show his appreciation of her mission. That the ship carried aid for the sick and wounded of all nations made an especially favorable impression in Holland, because the true spirit of the Red Cross—Neutrality—Humanity—was thus manifested. Here the stevedores unloaded the last of the supplies and would accept no pay for their services. The stores for Belgium were quickly transported to a specially chartered vessels and reshipped to Ghent, arriving there before that city was captured. The surgeons and nurses with the supplies for Germany and Austria were given a special train for Berlin. Though their English tongue caused occasional glances of suspicion, they had but to show their Red Cross passports to turn the glances of suspicion into those of kindly, grateful welcome. Having fulfilled her mission, the "Red Cross" returned to New York, bringing a number of American passengers to help defray her expenses. By this time shipping conditions were improved, and it became possible to forward additional personnel and supplies by the regular lines. The cold Archangel port, in spite of powerful ice-breakers, was closed during the winter months, so that Russia could not be reached for many weeks.

Into the great warehouse of the Bush Terminal continued to come thousands of cases of purchased and donated supplies, and as rapidly as possible these were forwarded. Figures sometimes tell a story and just a few of these may not be too dull to quote. In less than a year's time nearly two million bandages, over a million surgical dressings, more than a million yards of gauze, and nearly a million pounds of absorbent cotton were sent to Europe. Half a million articles of clothing for the wounded and refugees were made by willing hands. Hospital garments decorated with the Red Cross met with the special favor of the wounded men, who saw in each little cross a message of kindly sympathy from across the water. In the pockets of some of the pajamas were stowed handkerchiefs, pencils, picture post-cards addressed to the makers, and little American flags that delighted the patients. From the students of Yale and Harvard, our great universities, and from other generous donors were a score of ambulances. More than ten million cigarettes came from manufacturers,—a gift more welcome than non-smokers comprehend. What oblivion from suffering the forty thousand pounds of anæsthetics carried with them! What safety from infection, that deadly enemy of the wounded in this present war, was sealed in the many barrels of iodine! What prevention of tetanus, typhoid, diphtheria and meningitis was held in the thousands of doses of antitoxin prepared and sent! More than a hundred boxes of drugs, more than fifteen hundred additional instruments, hot-water bottles, ice-bags, rubber gloves and sheets by the thousands found their way to the war hospitals in Europe. Four field hospitals with tents for patients, staff, operations and kitchen, with their complete equipment, were bought and forwarded. Into all these and innumerable other articles was poured a wealth of human sympathy that came from the rich and poor alike. The check for many thousands showed the same kindly desire to aid the sufferers as the ten cents from the poor Polish woman who spoke no English, but who smiled at the Red Cross as she dropped her mite into a collection box. The money that was designated has been sent to the Red Cross societies. The undesignated funds have been used for the purchase of supplies and for other needs, for the hospitals where our Red Cross units have been stationed, for the American Ambulance in Paris, to aid the prisoners' bureau at Geneva, to transport the wounded from the front, for the Belgian refugees, for hospitals in Turkey, for refugees in Persia, for Jews in Palestine, for the German and Austrian prisoners in Siberia, for Russian prisoners in Germany, for the American Relief Clearing House in Paris, for the British Red Cross Intelligence Department, to aid those totally blinded by war, and for the Sanitary Commission to Serbia and Montenegro. To each country the American Red Cross has tried to send what was most desired.

The field has been so vast, the need so great, the suffering so appalling, that there must come to our American Red Cross a sense of gratitude that, in this world-wide tragedy, it has not had to labor for our own sick and wounded, but has been free to lend its aid to each and all of our fellow nations in distress.

CHAPTER XX

A CASTLE AT PAIGNTON. WAR STORIES. AN ENGLISH CHRISTMAS. THE WINTER PALACE. FIVE SOLDIERS OF FRANCE. BY THE SEA IN BELGIUM. RESCUED FROM FIRE. ON THE POLISH BORDER. A THEATRE OF WAR. IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY. GRATITUDE.

THE varied conditions under which the American Red Cross Units have served are typical of the fortunes of war. On the beautiful south coast of England were the stations of the British units,—one at the Royal Naval Hospital at Haslar, and the other at the American Women's Relief Hospital at Paignton. Ready for active work, there was at first a sense of disappointment evident when one of the nurses wrote from the hospital at Haslar: "It was quite empty when we arrived, and we were bemoaning our fate that we were not sent to the front, when we received notice that wounded Belgians were coming, and work was plentiful for a time. They have a body of men here called St. John's Ambulance Men, who are almost like our male trained nurses. These are the nurses who actually go to the front, and by the way, they are called nurses too. We are 'sisters,' and when the doctor asks for a nurse he means one of them. It was late in the afternoon when word came our wounded were on the way. Huge fires were soon blazing, beds gotten ready with hot water bottles, and everything possible done for their comfort. The first came about eleven at night, and by ten o'clock the next morning nine hundred and eighty had been received, bathed and wounds dressed, and everything running in regular routine. It was really marvellous. I like the Belgian soldiers very much indeed, though they were a poor, broken-spirited lot of men, and in such a state of mental demoralization owing to their great loss that they wept often before one attempted to touch their dressings. They were such gentlemen." After six weeks it was decided to send the Haslar unit to join that at Paignton where a larger force was needed. Reluctantly they left Haslar, the same nurse adding, "Everyone, from the surgeon-general down to the attendants, seemed sorry to have us go, and none were more sorry than ourselves. The surgeon-general wrote the other day to our supervisor how much they missed us; how sorry he was that we were gone, and that our motto should be 'quiet and efficient.'"

In the beautiful home of Mr. Paris Singer, "Oldway House," at Paignton, and not far from famous Torquay, the two units were united. This splendid house has been loaned for a hospital to a group of American women who have married in England, and it is under a committee of such prominent women as Lady Paget, Lady Randolph Churchill, the Duchess of Marlborough and Mrs. Harcourt. Marble stairways, tapestried walls and a magnificent park of many acres hardly presents the idea of a war hospital, but quite at home there is Tommy Atkins, for the ladies had stipulated they were to have the regulars for their patients. Sorry as she was to leave the gentlemanly Belgians, Sister Edna has a good word to say for the soldiers at Paignton. "Many badly wounded men are here. They are a nice lot of chaps, have great nerve and lots of grit and are just as cheerful as they can be, though the greater part of them know they will never be fit for service again. We hear from time to time about the awfulness of this war. We appreciate it from what we have seen, but what must it be for the poor fellows who are really behind the guns."

Whenever a sister has a moment's leisure, into her ears war stories are poured.

"H'I say, Sister, stop a bit for a talk. H'its good to 'ave somebody to say a word to," calls Tommy, who was evidently born within the sound of Bow Bells, and both of whose feet were frost bitten in the trenches near Ypres. "H'I seen some sights h'I won't soon forget. There are those black Gurkhas, a fine lot of men they be. H'I was in the trenches with them November fifth. The Germans knowed it was our bonfire day, but we didn't get fireworks. They just gave us 'ell all day long. H'I saw some terrible sights when the shells dropped near h'our trenches and 'it some of the poor beggars. H'I 'ad my feet froze, but I know some wot's wuss. Those Gurkhas they'd just smile and smile when they were wounded. When we was sent for h'ammunition h'I 'ave h'actually seen them carrying a box on their 'eads, with a rifle h'in each 'and. They're never 'appy when they h'arnt fightin'."

Jealous of the sister's listening so long by one bedside, Mr. Atkins from across the way sings out in a cheery voice, "I have seen a bit o' life, too, Sister. Had some adventures o' me' own. One day as we were passin' through Ypres when the Germans were shellin' the town a water bottle slipped down from the top of the ammunition wagon and got between it and the wheel. We stopped a bit to put things right, and in a minute a coal box (a seventeen-inch howitzer) burst fifty yards in front of us just where we'd have been if it hadn't been for the bottle. Goin' on thinkin' ourselves very lucky we got to a high bridge the Germans were shellin' heavily, it bein' the only one for the transports and ammunition wagons. We were just behind the French ammunition column and their last wagon was on the bridge, with us still our lucky fifty yards behind, when a large shell burst right over the bridge killin' two of the poor devils and three horses. We didn't get a scratch and we'll believe to our dyin' day, Sister Charlotte, twice that water bottle saved our lives."

During the long days of convalescence these are the stories of war's constant tragedies that the enlisted soldiers tell among themselves or repeat to the sympathetic ears of the nurses. Case after case of serious wounds the sisters note; there a man whose poor frost bitten feet mean amputation, here only a boy, and yet the light forever blotted out by the cruel shot that passed through both of his eyes. Always the same good courage. "The most remarkable thing is the cheerfulness among the men. No matter how badly they are wounded or maimed for life, they talk and laugh the whole day long. One feels like mothering them all; some are so very young, and the older ones, too, need their share of mothering," reads a nurse's diary. Brave, cheery fellows, making the best of it to the world outside. But what of the sad, sad thoughts of the wakeful hours covered by the darkness of the night.

An eventful day it was when Queen Mary came from London to visit them. She went through all the wards and had a kindly word for each man as she passed. Shaking hands with our supervising nurse in true American fashion, she expressed her delight with all she had seen of the work, and left the nurses aglow with her generous praise.

Even on the battlefields themselves the peace of Christmas Day silenced unordered the thundering guns, and into the sadness of the hospital the blessed season brought the brightness and the cheer of better days. The night sisters at Paignton had made huge stockings of crinoline, button-holing the edges with red yarn, for the many gifts. "Well, Christmas has come and gone," writes one of our nurses. "It was a busy time for us and a happy one for the soldiers. The hospital was gayly decorated throughout with the flags of the Allies and our own beautiful one, with holly and colored papers, and in many of the wards were trees. The long stockings were full to overflowing. The King and Queen Alexandra remembered the men, and the ladies' committee sent each one a silver cigarette case. The entire country around brought cakes, fruits, jams, candies, nuts and puddings. There was nothing to be wished for left, and believe me the men did justice to it all. These Tommy Atkins have good appetites. We filled the stockings and hung them to the beds, which took the men back to their childhood days, and needless to say they were children when they discovered the stockings. They demanded the lights on at half-past five in the morning, and it sounded more like a children's hospital than one for grown military men. In the afternoon the sisters all had tea with them. One of the really pathetic incidents was the concert given by the American sisters, Sister Frances and myself among them. The men wanted American songs, so we favored them with a few selections which met with wild applause, though there were tears in their eyes. The day was filled just as full as could be and the object of the celebration was accomplished—to take the patients' minds for a time from the horrible scenes they had just been through and from which they do not seem to be able to get away. In the day time these are their one topic of conversation, and at night they live it all over in their dreams and wake up shrieking, and it is hard to make them understand that they are in their beds.'' At the close of Christmas day one of the men, in a remark he made to the supervising sister, gave a pathetic little glimpse of his other Christmas days. ''It is the best Christmas I ever had, and it was a treat, Sister, to see everybody sober.''

If the units in England found a castle for their station, those in France had to use their ingenuity to convert a portion of the beautiful Palais d'Hiver at Pau into a hospital. But they were equal to this practical demand, and soon had well arranged wards and operating rooms ready for the wounded soldiers of France. Pau was a long way from the front, but as the plan of the French Medical Service was to evacuate the wounded as speedily as possible from the front to the more remote districts the hospital trains brought the soldiers to their care. No regular trained nurses were in the town save those of our American units, and proud indeed were they to find a notice in the railroad station ordering the seriously wounded to be taken to the American hospital in their charge. They did good work there, our faithful surgeons and nurses; and when the emergency call came from Washington for a surgeon and three nurses to volunteer for the care of our many surgeons and nurses suddenly stricken with typhus fever in Serbia, the Director, Dr. Kirby-Smith himself, and three of the nurses rushed to the aid of their compatriots at the risk of their own lives.

Many were the kindly words of praise said of the units at Pau, but none were more treasured by them than those of the little letter from five "Soldiers of France." "On leaving the hospital our hearts impell us to express to you the gratitude which we feel for the enlightened and devoted care which you have lavished upon us. Thanks to your science you have put soldiers of France once more on their feet. In spite of the difference between our languages, our hearts have beat in unison, and it is not difficult for us to make ourselves understood. Once more thanks. Long live the two republics!"

But there are other soldiers of France who have fought for her colors—men of darker hue, the Arabs of northern Africa. They, too, need the Red Cross care, and from Fort Mahon comes their story: "We have a ward called 'George V' which contains twenty-three Turcos and one black fellow named by us 'Sambo' and 'Jumbo.' These Arabs have no prejudice against noise, and weep and moan and shriek whenever they want or feel anything. So we call George ward the 'jungle', and you would laugh and cry together to hear them. They are like children. One asks for water, and instantly the whole line moans and chants, 'De l'eau, Madame; de l'eau,' Jumbo's deep base note rumbling under all the rest. You speak to one and at once all the rest begin to clamor like children. They want you to pay attention to them, too. One chants all day. We thought he was saying his prayers, but the Chief, a man of many medals, who speaks French, said, 'No, he is telling you how he feels. He sings, "My knee hurts, oh, how my knee hurts, and my head aches. I was shot in the knee and lay a long time before I was carried to the doctors. The sun is hid and it is cold. Oh, how my knee hurts. Soon they will bring my dinner, but I am not hungry." And so on all the time. We hear guns all day, see their flashes all night against the clouds, are often visited by aeroplanes, and hear and see many troops. Nearby German prisoners are mending the roads. It all sounds very thrilling, doesn't it? As a matter of fact it is only saddening to hear that incessant thunder and be reminded so constantly on all sides of the daily, hourly, horror."

Where they, too, can almost hear the guns, have been a little group of our Red Cross nurses at the hospital in Yvetot. And not far away are the Belgian units. On the outbreak of the war Belgium desired no surgeons and nurses, but when her Red Cross active service was reorganized in the little unconquered northwest corner of the country the appeal came for surgeons and nurses. Built upon the sands of the sea, La Panne has become a little hospital town, with its many pavilions for patients and for staff. Near to the firing line it is, and nerves must be steady over an operating table not to flinch at the sound of a sudden gun. "I do not think I have heard a big gun today," wrote one of the surgeons, "but now we are used to them and do not stop and prick up our ears whenever we hear one. The aeroplanes are quite numerous, and once in a while a German Taube gives us a scarce. They put shell all around, but have not hit the Allies here as yet." The German guns have not provided the only danger at La Panne, and what might have proved a very serious disaster threatened the entire hospital one night last June. In Sister Dorothy's report she tells of the narrow escape.

"We had an exciting time here on Sunday night. Fire broke out in the new Albert and Elizabeth pavilion about nine o'clock and completely destroyed the place. This pavilion had three large wards of one hundred beds each and two operating theatres. One of the wards had just been opened and forty patients had been admitted. Sister Florence and I had just been transferred to one of these new wards and were working hard to straighten things out. Everything looked so nicely that it was with a feeling of pride I locked the door at seven o'clock. You cannot imagine how badly we felt when after the alarm we hurried out to find our beautiful pavilion going up in smoke and flames. I was much concerned about our night nurses until I learned that they were safe and all the patients taken out without injury. At the sound of a bugle hundreds of soldiers came to our aid. It took only a few minutes to form water lines from the pavilion to the sea (I think all the buckets and pitchers on the place were in use), and by their quick and steady work they saved all the other buildings, which were in such great danger we were ordered to move all the patients to the beach. I can never tell you how we worked to get the patients out. The fire broke out in the gas house, and as the electric lights were cut off we had to use candles. One of the patients as he was being carried out looked up at me with the most appealing expression and asked, 'Sister, is it the enemy?' The King and Queen were there. One of our nurses who was trying to get a patient out looked about for assistance, and not knowing to whom she was speaking turned to a man standing near and said, 'I do not know who you are, but I want some one to help me with this patient.' He smiled and told her he was the King.

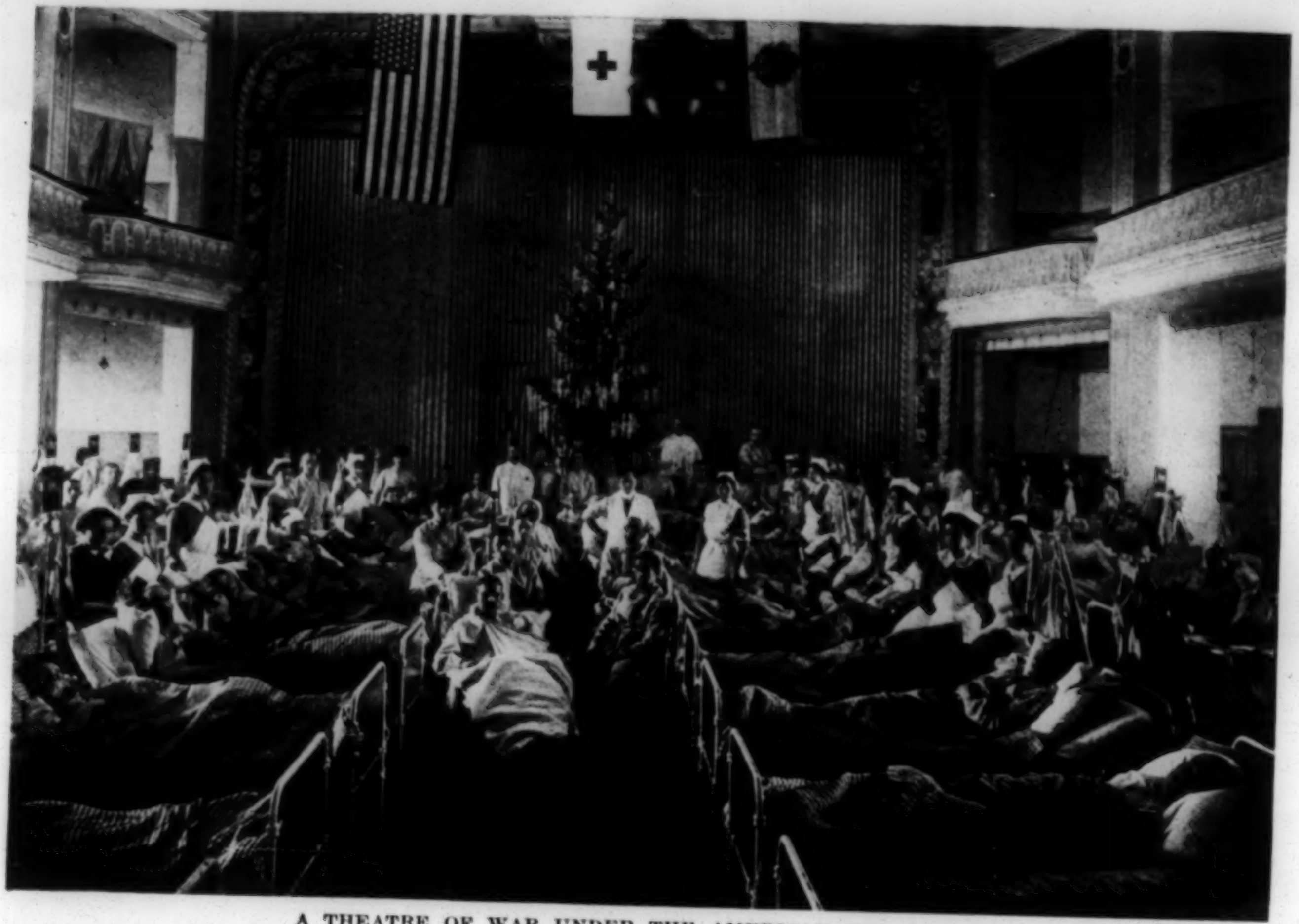
"The pavilion is to be rebuilt, and in the mean time we are put in the reception pavilion, the most interesting of all, where we receive from ten to twenty patients a day."

The good Belgian doctors gave for the American surgeons and nurses a little tea to celebrate our national birthday. There is something pathetic in the thought that these men who had lost their own country remembered the day we celebrate the winning of ours.

On the way to the Slavic allies we may cross through Holland and follow our other units into Germany and Austria. At Gleichwitz and Kosel, close to the Polish border in Germany, have two of them been stationed, so close that from the very first there has been work in plenty. At Kosel one unit was given the garrison hospital—Lazaret, they call it. Strange that the old name for a leper house still persists so long after the original purpose disappeared. The very day after the arrival of our surgeons and nurses the hospital was filled with wounded directly from the battlefield.

The Christmas tree on its native soil could not fail to find its place in a German hospital. "We were too busy to be homesick," said Sister Frances, in a hastily written letter. "Our celebration was a very pretty one. A great tree was dressed and presents and good things in abundance for every patient provided. Christmas Eve all the men were carried into one big room where a stirring address was made, half sermon, half exhortation, followed by the singing of German Christmas songs in which we all took part. Each ward had its own tree, and I had difficulty in keeping some of my nurses from spending all their money to make their decorations the prettiest."

And so the Christmas spirit was to be found everywhere, in spite of war and sorrow and human suffering, and the hearts that ached for those who never again would gather around the Christmas tree in the years yet



A THEATRE OF WAR UNDER THE AMERICAN RED CROSS

to come. To the smoky city of Gleichwitz went our other unit. The German Red Cross had assigned Count Talleyrand to look out for the American surgeons and nurses, and a most devoted counselor, friend and guardian he proved. A theatre here became our unit's hospital, a veritable theatre of war, filled with its wounded men. "The morning after our arrival we were given charge of this unique hospital," Ober-Schwester Anna tells her story. "Our first work was to organize the operating room, which is in the lobby where are the essentials, light and heat. An operating table, gas burners, a rough board partition and two shelves completed our requisitions. I rumaged through the loges, on and under the stage and dressing rooms, from attic to cellar and found theatrical properties adapted to our purpose. In the banqueting hall are fourteen beds, and sixty-one in the theatre proper. On the stage on one side hangs our beautiful flag, Mrs. Gerard sent us, the German on the other, and the Red Cross flag in the center. Six of us nurses sleep in the soubrette's dressing room, under our Red Cross blankets, which we adore. Cloak-room racks covered with brown paper make excellent screens, and we are quite comfortable and happy. Everyone has been so kind. Think of the unheard of luxury in Germany of 'corn on the cob,' which Countess Oppersdorff sent us; and tonight we dine on pheasant from the same kind donor. Our patients are so interested in the American way of doing things, and when we have a moment's time want to hear of the sky-scrapers in New York."

From Sister Dorothea comes a letter to American nurses in which she says: "We have had charge of the most serious cases which have come across the border. More than one man came to the hospital marked for amputation whose wounds were dressed and dressed, and then wired and plated, so that the patients left with arms or legs on the way to recovery. Tedious work, but what it meant to those poor fellows to be saved from a future crippled or maimed existence made it well worth while. Out of twelve hundred cases I have seen only four amputated legs, and no amputated arms. The men are so cheerful, even those totally disabled. One of them said the other day, 'To be cheerful is the least I can do, when you Americans are doing so much for me.' This is the spirit of all, and their self-control is wonderful under dressings nearly as painful as operations.

"The dressing gowns with the little Red Crosses are so popular because they came from America. One poor Galician, whose language no one could understand, gesticulated for two days before we realized it was not merely a clean gown he wanted, but that it must be an American one. No sooner are the men able to be up than they wish their pictures taken with the American doctors and nurses. They love us for our work, not as individuals, but as Americans, and their hearts go out to the country that has made our work possible."

In Vienna still another type of building, a modern schoolhouse, was converted into the Royal Auxiliary Hospital Number 8, and placed in charge of our unit for Austria; while at Budapest a massive structure formerly used as a blind asylum became the care of the unit which went to Hungary. In these hospitals also hundreds of wounded men have been ministered to by the American Red Cross surgeons and nurses, and the same gratitude that has been found elsewhere was manifested here too. There is a little story of a poor German boy who, though recovered from his wound, developed tuberculosis in the hospital at Budapest. Alone and without friends or money he was going back to a sanitarium in Germany. Our good nurses raised among themselves a little fund to give him before he left, but he would not take it, saying, as he wept, "How can I take money, when I have been so kindly treated?" But he could not prevent the

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FRENCH AND GERMAN SURGEONS, FRIENDS AT THE SIDE OF THE WOUNDED

warm-hearted nurses sending the little gift later anonymously, mailing it from Vienna so he should not know its source.

All these simple pictures of war hospital scenes in this great tragedy are, as Sister Dorothea says, "Only trifling details, and yet they show the spirit which taken home to the family hearth is not going to breed war, but rather a spirit of kindliness and gratitude,—a spirit making for peace throughout the world."

CHAPTER XXI

A FINNISH WELCOME. THE DOCTOR BECOMES A GENERAL. IN THE HOSPITAL AT KIEF. THE EMPEROR. A YOUNG CRIMEAN VETERAN. TWO CHRISTMAS DAYS. A ROYAL VISIT. ON THE SERBIAN FRONTIER. BELGRADE UNDER FIRE. WOUNDED BY THOUSANDS. A PLACE IN HISTORY.

It was a long journey from England to Kief, but not without its compensation. Whatever may be the relations between Russia and Finland, there can be no doubt of the welcome for the Red Cross, whose goal was a hospital for wounded Russian soldiers. All along the Finnish coast, at every village station, the kindly people brought their little gifts, and choruses of men's voices sang a greeting or chanted a farewell. It was not easy to keep back the tears of an indescribable emotion before these tokens of simple gratitude.

No less warm than the welcome of the countryside was that of the capital and the Empress Marie Feodorovna at Petrograd. The democracy of the Red Cross is one of its greatest glories. It appeals alike to the emperor in his palace and the peasant in his cottage. Deeply interested, the officials provided Russian uniforms for the American surgeons, to insure the respect of the soldiery and because an unknown uniform might cause some embarrassment. Our surgeon directors found themselves suddenly promoted to be generals, and the junior doctors all became colonels. Later, when additional surgeons were sent they sailed for Archangel, and came over the wintry north land to Petrograd making the journey part way on sledges.

Kief at last, and crowning the crest of a beautiful hill, in the administration building of a fine lyceum our Russian units were installed. In his letters home Dr. Egbert, the chief director, speaks enthusiastically of the location. "It is beautifully situated, and the poor men when they reach here are so grateful and so child-like in their expressions. It seems like heaven to them. They are a happy lot of patients, brave and uncomplaining. As the men go back to the front they tell their comrades if they are hit by any kind of a trick to be taken to the American hospital. I love the work and I love the patients. They are so kind and thoughtful to one another. To my own personal knowledge the Austrian soldiers are kind to the Russians, and the Russians are just as kind to the Austrian prisoners. I am heart and soul in this great work America is doing for Russia and America. I cannot yet write about it, but I am coming to understand and to appreciate the vision beyond." Of the Emperor he wrote: "When the Emperor came General Bryack introduced me to him, and seeing me in Russian uniform he did not quite understand, and merely returned my salute. When I spoke to him in English a look of amazement came over his face and his hand came down from the salute to a warm, kindly handshake, the sort that makes a man feel good. Never have I looked on a face so care-worn and so sad; never have I been impressed with a man who seemed to embody less ostentation and so much good fellowship. I know he is a gentleman, and a man of sorrows, and acquainted with grief, a man whose tastes are simple, and whose heart is warm with love for his people. Suffering as he was under the mental and physical fatigue from having visited and talked personally with several thousands of his wounded soldiers, his gracious courtesy and brave self-control were perfect.

"It is well worth while working for the soldiers of such a sovereign. We are performing all kinds of operations on patients of all ages. I must tell you about one seventy-two years old, who has been decorated for valor for every one of his four wars. I had my interpreter tell him he was too old to fight, he had served his country enough and should go home and play with his grand-children, to which he replied: 'I wish to say to His Excellency that I am not old, only my teeth are old; and if it shall please His Excellency the General to command that my teeth be pulled and new ones put in I will be as young as I was in the Crimea.' They are so simple and childlike. They are our children. This Red Cross work is good and I believe will help as much as anything else to bring the peace on earth we so earnestly pray for."

It is a touching picture Sister Helen draws of the same good Russian soldiers and the life in the Red Cross Hospital.

"It is when they come to us weary, oh so weary, a long line of limping, feeble folk, and streams of stretchers bearing the totally incapacitated, that one feels it is war, and senses in some small degree the awful slaughter going on miles away. It is a slaughter that wrecks thousands of lives and makes strong men in a minute as helpless and defenseless as babies. And when they leave, I believe it's even sadder. With us I am sure these good soldiers are happy. It is most gratifying to know the affection that springs up in their hearts for all the 'Amerikansky' Sisters, even with the most querulous and irritable, as soon as they have been here a single day or so!

"Every Russian soldier who has been here is our friend and grateful adherent. And so when orders come for them to leave it is quite likely to be a great sadness for them. Perhaps they go to a convalescent home where care and living are very ordinary, perhaps to a smaller hospital where American methods do not prevail, rarely it is for a period at home, and occasionally it's 'to the front.'

"And when we see them all ready to go forth to, God knows what fate! the dirty, bloody battle clothes upon them, perhaps an arm or leg or foot gone, an eye or part of the jaw, or some other serious disfigurement, or permanent disability, it makes one heartsick. When they come to know we could help them for a while, now as they go from us we know it will be hardship and suffering for them at best.

"From a box sent by the American Red Cross we had a few pairs of hose, lenghts of flannel for cholera bands, and outing flannel pajama suits. It has been such a joy to fit up some of the neediest of the outgoing ones with a warm garment or two. One, a young man who had a lung injury, and who was thin and poor, was given one of the beautiful pajama suits, his mother standing by, weeping for very joy and gratitude. I now have a lot of warm flannel squares for the feet and some beautiful long wool hose and mittens.

"There are times when to use the same qualifying adjective for a Sistine Madonna or a sunset and a pair of wool hose and a pajama suit would seem quite out of order, but not so here and now, where even the most gorgeous of paintings or sunsets don't count.

"There are thirty-five good fellows leaving today. What a joy it would be if you could only see and hear them. And we don't need any extensive knowledge of Russian to know they leave us with their everlasting gratitude and blessings. And it is indeed a blessed privilege to serve them. Our orderlies, the soldiers appointed for all this work here with us, are good fellows too. We nurses gave them for Christmas each an Ingersoll watch (or the European as-near-could-be equal, which I fear is pretty poor), and now as they go home for brief vacations we try to send little gifts to the wives and babies, and there are always plenty of these babies.

"The difference between the Russian calendar and our calendar gives us two Christmases and two New Years, and all these occasions were quite merry. On our American Christmas eve the soldiers peering over the balustrade were invited in and enjoyed all our fun quite as much as we did. For their Christmas there was a tree and presents provided for all the patients, candy, cigarettes, handkerchiefs, etc. A magician and Russian singer and balalaika player gave a taking program first, and then the gifts were passed and all were happy.

"The great event of the season was Czar Nicholas' visit to Kief. It had long been rumored he was coming, but he came not, and then at length they said he truly was coming Tuesday, the 9th. And the way the orderlies were started to working made it seem there was this time some truth in the statement. We had a grand cleaning up when we moved in here, with additional embellishments for our 'opening,' and now after the lapse of two months or more I was glad to see this unusual diligence again everywhere. One chandelier received special attention which the electrician said had never in its fourteen years been cleaned before.

"No one knew that the Czar would come to our hospital, but anyhow we all rejoiced over the preparations. Tuesday he arrived in town and many saw him, though none went from our hospital. We waited and hoped, but at four o'clock instead a 'high-up' general came with the medals to be distributed and with the Czar's regrets. We were disappointed that he didn't come to us. The general gave medals to the most seriously wounded, or rather a few of them. We received word that by imperial decree we American doctors and nurses were to be at the station to see His Majesty, and his failure to come here was therefore not quite so disappointing. So at five o'clock we all left in sleighs. Fortunately we had been advised to wear our caps and full uniforms, and these were much prettier than our coats, which are ugly and shabby now.

"Many of the ladies were in full dress and the men in full court uniform, among whom were the gentlemen of the Czar's chamber. One personage from whose gorgeousness we could scarcely take our eyes was a Cossack in the most splendid trappings mortal mind could possibly conceive.

"We were stationed in the first room from the entrance, the doctors first and then we three supervisors next. We waited long, perhaps one and a half hours, but the coming of so many people helped to make it less wearisome.

"At length we knew the Czar was near for the shouts of the people who had been waiting outside to see him all this time. And soon an automobile drew up from which he descended—the Czar of all the Russias!—looking very simple in the same identical colonel's uniform such as our younger doctors are wearing. Dr. Egbert being a general the Czar saluted him. At first he didn't grasp just who we were. But it was a positive joy to see his face light up with unmistakable pleasure when the Red Cross official said we were Americans. He shook hands with all the doctors and spoke briefly with them, then with the three supervisors, and I found myself talking to him.

"He was so friendly, so simple, and had such a nice kindly face and gentle way. The first thing he said to me was, 'I'm sorry to have kept you waiting so long.' Wasn't that unselfish of him? Then he asked where our hospital was, said he had heard about it, and thanked us 'for the good care you are giving my soldiers.' He talked with many as he went down the line and won us all by his directness and simplicity.

"I am sure the other people present were surprised to see how much attention he gave us and how friendly he was.

"After us he greeted the soldiers with a few speeches, and in a trice was in his car and from the platform waved farewell, while the soldiers sent up cheer after cheer.

"One nice little story told of him was that at the railway station hospital which he had visited just before he came to us he found a mere boy of a soldier who was wounded, whom he took in his arms and kissed. I'm sure he has a kind heart. He shows it in his face. And I can say 'Long live the Czar' with sincerity."

Nowhere were conditions more appalling in the earlier days of the war than in Serbia. To a little town near the frontier went an American nurse, and her pen graphically depicts the situation which existed there.

"The barracks were filled with a thousand rough iron cots on which lay straw mattresses. We had none of the conveniences of an ordinary hospital, not even running water. All had to be carted from the village, half an hour's journey away. So little for laundry could be spared we were allowed for each bed one clean sheet in ten days. Twelve hundred patients and we were only two surgeons, eight nurses and some five hospital orderlies! Often we have to put two beds together to accommodate three patients.

"The language was one of the difficulties, and I remember standing appalled as batch after batch of freshly wounded were brought in, wondering how the few words of Serbian I knew would carry me through. Passing through one of the corridors, I stopped on seeing a man try to get a better position for his leg, which had been terribly smashed. I moved it a little and was surprised to hear him say, 'Him leg not much good. Pretty bad.' I quickly asked him if he spoke English, to which he replied, 'No, American.' He had worked three years in a Colorado mine. Profiting by this experience, I went through the wards inquiring for anyone who spoke 'American' and fortunately found a man who was slightly injured and who had been in America ten years. So 'George' became my head interpreter. Our own efforts at Serbian were hardly a success. I asked one man, as I thought, to open his mouth, but learned from the shrieks of laughter of the entire ward that I had said 'Open your window and put out your tongue.'

"Our wounded generally come at two or three in the morning, brought on stretchers or rude ox-carts, eighty or one hundred at a time, tired, cold and hungry, with only a temporary bandage on their wounds that had often received no other care for a week or ten days. The minor operations are all done without anæsthetics. Poor men! For these were so scarce they must be saved for major cases. Often we are short of everything. Wounds that should have been dressed daily are sometimes done only once in nine days. Of absorbent cotton there is little left, and no adhesive plaster has been seen for weeks."

Later, on her way home, a glimpse of the hospital at Belgrade under our American Red Cross unit, with its complete equipment, filled this nurse's heart with joy. "It seemed so wonderful, as Miss Gladwin took us on her round, to hear her call a sufferer by name and say a few words of comfort to him. Almost a look of adoration spread from face to face as she passed along. They all love the 'Sestras Americana.' We have read of the wonderful experience of Florence Nightingale at Scutari, not so far from here; and it is a privilege for us in a small measure to realize some of this here in Serbia."

It was at Belgrade that the doctors and nurses of the little Red Cross unit were actually on the firing line; there that they witnessed the taking of the city by the Austrians and its reoccupation by the Serbians. Dr. Ryan, our director, tells the story himself.

"At Valjevo, after talking over the situation with Dr. Gentitch, he asked me if we were afraid to go to Belgrade, seeing that the Austrians were still bombarding the town and there was a certain amount of danger. The Crown Prince asked me the same question. I told him our instructions were to report to the officials here for orders, and if they wanted us to go to Belgrade and we were needed there we were perfectly willing to go. We arrived here October fifteenth and found this fine hospital in a terrible condition, as it had not been cleaned for months and was full of patients. After six weeks of very hard work we had an ideal hospital, and it remained so until the advent of the Austrians, when we were overrun with thousands of wounded.

"I have been director of all the hospitals in Belgrade since the last of November and have under my care five hospitals, with about forty buildings, nine Serbian doctors, one hundred and fifty nurses and twelve hundred patients. On the second of December the Austrians came in. Two days before this the Serbians came to me at two o'clock in the morning and said that they were going away, but I was supposed to remain in charge of all the hospitals. You can imagine my feelings. No authorities were left in the city and as there were many robbers about many of the stores were broken into and looted. There was also a good deal of shooting in the streets. Early in the morning of the first day a number of people came to me for protection, claiming that their houses had been broken into during the night, and as there were no police of any kind the situation was rather serious. As this condition was allowed to go on until the afternoon without any attempt to remedy it I became alarmed. I left the hospital about three o'clock and went to see some of the men I had met before the evacuation. Others were called in, and I asked them what they intended to do. They replied they did not know, as they were not officials and had no authority to act. They supposed they would have to wait until the Austrians came. I suggested a citizens committee which would have power to appoint policemen and run the town until someone came to take over the government. This plan was carried out with fairly good results, and while there was still looting and shooting, with many deaths, without something of this kind the situation would have been too terrible for description. Many people were being held up in broad daylight, and it was necessary to do something, especially for the poor people, who had no food. Some six thousand had to be fed, and as I had not enough for the patients at the hospitals it made it very hard. I did get some bread for a few of them, but I was very glad to see somebody come in who could furnish food. I visited the hospitals and sent men out into the country to bring in all the food they could lay their hands on. But before their return the Austrians arrived. I called on the commanding general, explained that I was left in charge of the hospitals, and asked him to give or sell me sufficient food for them. He promised to do all in his power for me, but feared it would not be much, as he was having difficulty in providing food for his army, which had been without bread for thirty-six hours. He did, however, send me food later.

"About forty-eight hours after the first troops entered the city the wounded began to arrive, and it seemed as if they would never stop coming. We worked day and night until we could no longer continue, and I ordered all the nurses to bed as I could see no end to it. We had wounded men everywhere, thousands of them, with others piling in on top of us all of the time. Our nerves after the first few days, especially the nurses', were all gone to smash. Starting our day at six o'clock in the morning we would dress, dress, dress wounds all day, putting the operations off until night. About nine o'clock we would start to operate, and work right on until five or six in the morning. Many nights we got no sleep at all, and never more than three hours. The halls and floors of wards, and every place a man could fit in, we had filled. The beds in the ward were all put side by side, and instead of seeing beds, all you could see was a mass of suffering humanity. It is not easy to describe the conditions at that time, as it seems now more or less like a nightmare. We had in this hospital for several days three thousand, and one day we had in the grounds nine thousand wounded men. I had then to beg the Austrian officials to send some of them to the hospitals in Hungary, as it was impossible to care for so many. They began sending them off after this, which was a very good thing. Some of the wounds had not been dressed in several days, and it was making everyone nervous as passing through halls or rooms every man would cry out to be dressed, or given morphine, or killed, or something. As they were always crying out with pain you could not get away from it no matter in what part of the hospital you were, and it appeared all the time to be getting worse until nearly the end it seemed as if we would all go mad. One of the nurses was taken suddenly ill just at that time with pneumonia, which was very severe, and when scarlet fever also developed I felt that the end of the world had come for I did not think it possible that there could be so many things in the world for a man to worry about at once. But thank the Lord she has fully recovered and is now about again.

"Suddenly the order came to evacuate. On the thirteenth we could hear cannon in the distance, and the morning of the fourteenth the cannonading was very much closer. By eleven one could see the shells bursting on the hillside. By one o'clock the battle was raging on the outskirts of the city and it seemed as if all the cannon and rifles in the world were being fired off at once right around Belgrade. It became worse as the day went on, until at dark shells were bursting everywhere. The streets were jammed with cannon, soldiers, supply wagons, horses, and everything else going for the bridges that would take them across the River Save to safety. They continued the retreat until next morning, when the Serbians destroyed the bridges, leaving all who had not gotten across as prisoners on this side. About five hundred Austrian wounded were left in my care.

"America and the American Red Cross will go down in Serbian history, and I am sure they will occupy the most prominent page in the evacuation and reoccupation of Belgrade. It gives you a funny little feeling in your throat when you hear them shouting 'vivas' for the American Red Cross as you pass along the street."

CHAPTER XXII

AN INVASION OF TYPHUS. THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION OFFERS HELP. DR. STRONG AGAIN TO THE FRONT. THE AMERICAN RED CROSS SANITARY COMMISSION. DISINFECTING A NATION. OVER THE MOUNTAINS TO MONTENEGRO. CONQUEST OF THE FEVER. WITH THE TURKISH ARMY. A DESERT HOSPITAL. ON CAMEL AMBULANCE TO JERUSALEM.

One day there came to the American Red Cross from Mr. Bicknell, who was with the Rockefeller Commission in Europe, a cable into which was compressed a tale of national woe: "Typhus epidemic overshadows everything else." Into the cities and towns of Serbia were huddled refugees by thousands from the north. Schoolhouses, convents and all other buildings were so crowded that neither health nor sanitary conditions received any consideration. Two previous wars had brought such destitution that the people were an easy prey to typhus, typhoid and re-occurrent fevers. Smallpox and scarlet fever had appeared. The greatly dreaded cholera threatened to develop with the coming summer. Already fifteen of the eighteen surgeons and nurses of our later Red Cross units sent to Serbia, who had been stationed at Ghevgheli in a vast tobacco factory converted into a hospital, had developed typhus fever. Four hundred of the twelve hundred patients in their charge were ill with this disease, and escape became impossible.

Dr. James F. Donnelly and Dr. Ernest P. Magruder, two of our courageous surgeons, succumbed to the fever. They gave their lives for their fellow men, and more can no man give. On their graves, in the far-away Balkan land, where the flowers are few, "I always find," said one of the nurses, " fresh leaves and green branches tenderly placed by the grateful people."

Here was a great field of work,—one full of danger and calling for rare courage. The Rockefeller Foundation offered to the American Red Cross generous financial aid if it would undertake the work of suppressing the fever. To one whose brave services in Manchuria gave assurance, the Red Cross turned—to Dr. Richard P. Strong. He had faced the danger of the pneumonic plague fearlessly, and again at the call left his professorship of tropical diseases at Harvard University to go to the front; and with him went a corps of splendid men,—physicians, bacteriologists, clinical experts and sanitarians,—men who knew the danger that they faced, and knowing went. Immense stores for the disinfecting of a nation were forwarded to Serbia. With Mr. Bicknell's aid Dr. Strong secured the co-operation of the English, French and Russian missions then in Serbia. An international Health Board consisting of their chiefs and Serbian medical authorities was organized, of which because of his tried ability Dr. Strong was made the director. This terrible scourge of typhus that had already slain over a hundred of the four hundred Serbian doctors, thousands of her people, and great numbers of the Austrian prisoners, has been checked.

Sir Thomas Lipton after his second trip to Serbia wrote to the American Red Cross: "I could hardly believe that in such a short time the staff you have sent out here could have made such a change. The terrible sights that I witnessed when I was in Serbia the first time are now finished. The work that has been performed by Dr. Strong and his staff has been miraculous."

From Montenegro came an urgent appeal to cross the mountains and go to the aid of her fever-threatened people. A few leaves of Dr. Strong's diary letter gives us a vivid glimpse of this field of Red Cross work.

"After an inspection of the hospitals, barracks and town of Metrovitza, Serbia, and learning what was needed, we had a hasty luncheon and at three o'clock in the afternoon (this is late in May) started out on horseback for Pech, Montenegro. My party consisted of Mr. Brink, our sanitary inspector, a Serbian gendarme and my interpreter. It began raining about four o'clock and continued to do so almost the entire night. We were wet through. I expected to have a carriage meet me on the border between Serbia and Montenegro. It was raining heavily when we arrived there and there was no carriage. We went on anyhow. Dawn comes very early in this part of the world this time of year. At three-thirty o'clock in the morning, although it was raining, I could see clearly enough to tell the time by my watch. We rode into Pech at five A.M., having been in the saddle or on foot for more than fourteen hours. My gendarme made a sorry appearance as we rode into the village.

"In Pech we did not find attractive quarters at the hotel; in fact, they were most insanitary, and, to be truthful, there was no place to wash or make one's toilet. I sat down and waited in the yard. By half past six o'clock we found and roused the Doctor and with him I went immediately to inspect the hospital. Here I found conditions in a dreadful and very alarming state. On entering the hospital I saw in the first room many piles of clothing which had been removed from the typhus cases. These lay on the floor and crawling over them and upon the floor in the vicinity there were literally thousands of lice. I have never seen so many before. The hospital had some two hundred and fifty typhus cases and they were all badly neglected. The wards themselves were in a dreadful condition. There were no disinfectants and no means for bathing the patients and no clean clothes or bedding for them.

"At eight-thirty A.M. I met the Prefect, who is a first cousin of the King, and the Commander General at Pech, and had a long interview with them. I then went to visit the barracks in different parts of the town where the soldiers were quartered. After this I had another long interview with the General and Prefect and we prepared a list of what seemed needed in Pech for Sanitary work and for the hospitals. I knew that unless stringent measures were immediately taken here typhus would probably spread rapidly and another epidemic result, as in Serbia. I have arranged to disinfect the hospitals, the patients and their clothes. We shall place the troops that are now in barracks in tents while we are disinfecting their former quarters, clothes and bedding. I have supplies, clean underclothes and night shirts for all the patients in the hospital and have quarantined Pech.

"I am sending Dr. Grinnell and Mr. de la Pena to take charge at Pech, and with them will go a large quantity of disinfectants, bath tubs, etc. I think Grinnell is just the man to take hold of this difficult proposition. I do not know whether you can quite realize the importance of trying to prevent immediately the further spread of this disease in Montenegro.

"After a quick lunch in Pech at one o'clock in the afternoon we left by carriage and arrived at Decani two hours later. I found here several thousand soldiers quartered in a monastery with a Serbian priest caring for them the best he could. I promised to send him disinfectants and expert assistance. Cases of typhus were developing among the men who had come there from Pech. After spending about an hour and a half we continued travelling in our carriages until eight o'clock at night. It was then quite dark and Mr. Brink and I decided to camp and spend the night in the open, sending the two carriages with the guards and the interpreter on to town, an hour's travel distant.

"I forgot to mention that I had an escort of six gendarmes with me because we were passing through a territory which is on the Albanian border and the Albanians are very unfriendly to the Montenegrins. The gendarme in command begged me not to camp in the open, saying it was very dangerous to do so. However, as I had not slept for twenty-eight hours I did not feel like going on at that hour of the night and spending it at the infected hotel. We therefore insisted on remaining that night in the open. A camp fire was started and Mr. Brink made some coffee and fried some bacon. This we ate, together with a tin of salmon and some biscuits.

"Our meal had hardly been finished before a curious incident happened. A man, screaming with all his lung-power, came running into our vicinity, chased by an Albanian with a rifle in his hands. This man claimed, as we found out later, that the Albanian was trying to kill him. It seems the Albanian had seen our camp fire and had crossed the border to find out what it meant. We gave him something to eat and he at once became very friendly. By signs he intimated to us we should put the camp fire out and lie down and go to sleep. In fact, he several times tried to put the fire out himself and kept pointing to the Albanian frontier, every once in a while raising his rifle to his shoulder as if about to fire, indicating, we presumed, that we were in danger.

"As the rain was now pouring down we decided to go to bed. We had no tents with us, but had the canvas covers for our hammocks. We spread our bedding on the ground and then climbed under the canvas. The rain fell heavily all night long. I was wet through and found next morning that my pocketbook had been so badly soaked that my passport which it contained was damaged and the pigment on the red seal had smeared on the paper. We heard some shooting in the night, but no shots were exchanged. A little before four A.M. we crawled out of our beds. It was still raining. We rolled up the water-soaked bedding and left it there on the plain to be sent for, and started on our walk to the town of Djakovitza, which we reached about 5.45 o'clock. The commanding officer in the town was scandalized to hear that we had camped in the open on the Albanian border. He said it not only was very unsafe, but that no one had done such a thing for many years; that our experience would go down in history. We, however, preferred to take the risk of being shot, to sleeping in a typhus-infected hotel.

"The prefect and the commanding officer went with us on a round of inspection of the hospitals, barracks and of Djakovitza generally. Typhus had broken out here too among troops that had come from Pech. I at once arranged to have all people coming this way from Pech intercepted and held in quarantine ten days.

"Having investigated the needs of the town, I at once purchased a thousand kilos of lime from a neighboring village and arranged to send a quantity of disinfectants and further medical assistance. The prefect had no money with which to purchase such necessities. We left this town about three o'clock in the afternoon by carriage for Prizren. The country throughout Montenegro, as in Serbia, is very hilly or mountainous, but whether one goes by carriage or horseback he must do a great deal of walking up the hills. Prizren is located at the foot of snow-clad mountains and many beautiful mountain streams run through the place. Arriving there at nine o'clock at night, I found there were but three doctors, one of whom was down with typhus and another just convalescing from it. The hospitals, three in number, were all in a very insanitary condition, with practically no disinfectants to be had. We spent the night at the residence of a Serbian professor of theology, who looked after our comfort as well as he could. The following afternoon we left by carriage for Ferrosovitz and arrived at 9.30 P. M.

"We spent the night there, retiring at 10.30 rather tired, after having arranged for a handcar with which to make the journey via the railroad track the following morning. This had to be done because I was anxious to get back to Skoplje (Uskub) as quickly as possible to start a relief expedition out, and there would be no train going until the next afternoon and no engine was available. We were indeed fortunate to find a handcar. On Saturday morning, May 23, we rose at 3.30 o'clock and by four o'clock were making our way on the handcar. Our car proved unruly, for after we had been running about an hour one of the iron thwarts which hold the wooden handlebar, by means of which the car is propelled, suddenly broke. Happily we were running down hill at the time and could keep the car going until we reached the next station. Here we were fortunate to find a blacksmith and within an hour he had welded the broken parts of the handle-bar together. We were able thus to reach Skoplje by ten o'clock in the morning.

"In Skoplje I found enough work to keep me busy for the rest of the day. It was a disappointment to learn that nothing had been done towards the building of a bathing establishment which I had offered to pay for. I learned from the Serbian doctor that it would cost considerably more than they had previously thought it would. I have, however, arranged to begin its construction immediately, and have the General's promise that he will have the work completed as soon as possible.

"May 25, Tuesday, Nish. We left Skoplje by train Monday night at eight o'clock and arrived at Nish at 5.30 this morning. You see I am living up to my habit of stopping only one night at one place.

"I spent several hours to-day with Sir Thomas Lipton, and dined quietly with Sir Ralph Paget this evening, when we discussed the coming session of the International Health Board which was to take place the next morning. I assure you our meals are very simple affairs.

"May 26, Wednesday, Nish. We are on the train returning from Nish to Skoplje and will reach the latter place to-morrow morning at 5.30 o'clock. I am glad to say that my transportable disinfecting and bathing plants have just been finished and will be sent to Skoplje to-morrow for use. It consists of one car which contains a boiler for generating steam, and a second car, formerly a refrigerating car, which is practically a huge autoclave, and into which the steam is turned for the disinfection of the clothes; a third car in which there are fifteen shower baths. The individuals are to have their hair clipped, to be bathed and their clothes disinfected by steam while they are bathing. Their clothes will be ready for them to put on after their bath. Before they clothe themselves they are sprayed with petroleum. It is the idea also to vaccinate them immediately afterwards. Several thousand people can be bathed and disinfected in a day by this means and the cars can be moved from city to city. You remember I used to utilize cars with steam disinfection in Manchuria.

"May 27, Thursday, Skoplje. I reached here at 5.30 this morning and after breakfast completed arrangements for the inoculation of the troops against cholera. At 10 o'clock we began the inoculation and continued until about 12.30. Everything went off smoothly and satisfactorily. The men took off their coats and removed from the arm the left sleeve of the undershirt. The arm is scrubbed with soap and water and then another attendant paints a little tincture of iodine over the place where the inoculation is to be made. The men pass along in rows and after they are inoculated another attendant paints the arm again with tincture of iodine. One man can inoculate about seventy-five patients in an hour.

"This afternoon has been spent in conferences at the office with the prefect and the civil city physician here. I paid to the prefect the sum of 5170 francs for the erection of the disinfecting and bathing plant here. I also went to the station and arranged for a place where the transportable disinfecting plant could be located.

"I am now about to retire as I shall be up at 5 o'clock to-morrow morning."

In Beirut, Syria, the American Red Cross has an active chapter that has more than once done good service. To it and the Syrian Protestant College was left the organization of our Red Cross medical expedition that followed a part of the Turkish army over the sandy desert that stretched southward from Jerusalem to the Suez Canal. Dr. St. John Ward, the professor of surgery at the college, was the director of the expedition, and with the Reverend George Doolittle as assistant, four German Kaiserswerth sisters from the Johanniter Hospital and sixteen medical students, formed the staff. With tents and hospital equipment over the wonderful road, through the Valley of Silk they went to the Emerald set with Pearls, Damascus, on the first stage of their journey, and where they received a cordial welcome from the Turkish officials. Pushing on to the southward on the way to Jerusalem one of the carriages upset, injuring severely an arm of one of the sisters; but not for a moment would she be left behind. Over the battlefields of the old Crusaders went these present-day followers of the Cross of Red. Eighteen hours north of Jerusalem the equipment had to be loaded on camels and carts to reach the city. From the reports sent by Dr. Ward and Mr. Doolittle, one who has been in Palestine can visualize the scenes of the journey and the desert hospital.

"From Jerusalem south the question of transportation became increasingly difficult. We could go as far as Beersheba in carriages with a picturesque gendarme mounted on a camel as our guide. To Hafir we proceeded on mules, and were at once urged to push on farther across the desert; but we vigorously insisted on waiting until the last of our equipment had arrived. It was a dangerous journey, but all were ready to go and as many as could find saddles left on Sunday evening, February 7th. After a two hours' ride we were, however, halted, and sent back to Hafir to establish the hospital there. The camp was at some distance from the main caravan road, on a clean, flat, sandy spot. It took three days of hard work to complete our little white city, the entrance of which was marked by two flagstaffs carrying the Red Cross and the Red Crescent banners. The tents were set up in long rows and numbered, and the avenues named. The central one, with the flagstaffs, was fitly known as 'Wilson Avenue,' a slight tribute to the honored president of the American Red Cross. We had beds for eighty-five seriously wounded and for many more slightly wounded who were placed on rugs on the ground. The government supplied soldiers to guard the encampment. Their zeal was commendable except when a hostile aeroplane encircled the camp and they prepared to fire upon it. It took some strict injunctions upon the part of Dr. Ward to make plain to them the duty of absolute neutrality.

"It was decided to establish five hours beyond, in the desert, an advance or refreshment station, at Wadi-el-Arish. Some on camels and some on mules, we pushed across the barren desert, fearing we might lose our way and be left on the road after nightfall. Just as darkness began to descend upon us, in the distance could be seen the bivouac fires of the soldiers. We could now rest at ease, our goal in sight, for the camels could pick out the road in the dark. Here a tent with medical supplies and food for the wounded was pitched and the first caravan of them made ready for the journey. This was the farthest point in the desert reached by the American Red Cross.

"At Hafir the caravan arrived just after nightfall, most of the wounded on camels—those ambulances of the desert that swing and sway as the ponderous beasts move slowly along the road. Never will these scenes be forgotten. The hurried call for duty that quickly emptied the dining tent, each seizing a lantern as he left; the gruff growling of a hundred camels as they unwillingly knelt and discharged their loads; the wounded, tired, hungry and thirsty soldiers, so glad to have come to the end of the long journey over the sands.

"Only three of our patients died, and one of these poor soldiers, with broken arm and leg, had been carried several days' journey sitting on a camel's back from which he once fell to the ground.

"There were many difficulties to be faced in this desert hospital. One of the chief was sand storms. These came invariably at nine or ten in the morning and lasted until the late afternoon. The sand drifted under the tents, through the doors and covered everything, tables, boxes and beds. This was particularly serious in the operating tent. Naturally one of the problems was water. From the one large, deep well of Hafir, a quarter of a mile away, it had to be carried in oil tins on mules, or by the soldiers. The thirsty, feverish patients kept crying for 'Water, only a little water,' with which it was hard to keep them supplied."

Typhus fever proved a serious menace, especially where scarcity of water prohibited much bathing, but by sulphur fumigation this was kept under control. "Our wounded were an interesting assortment of men, mainly Arabs from Palestine and Syria who were nearly all Moslems. They were most patient, obedient, and appreciative. Many were the blessings showered on our heads by them."

When the army moved to the north the camp hospital was discontinued and the men transferred to those at Jerusalem by several caravans. "With the last section went the sisters and the seriously wounded, in the frames of wicker-work tied on the camels. It was a strange and trying experience for all, but no accident occurred. Travelling by night and day, up hills and across plains, we reached Jerusalem after three days' fatiguing journey. There we surrendered our patients to the regular military hospitals. Thus the American

Red Cross was enabled to fit into a place of special need, and to do a large share in relieving the sufferings of those of the Turkish army who were wounded in the fighting at the Suez Canal."

Since then this excellent medical corps of our Red Cross has made its way to Constantinople and is aiding there in the care of the sick and wounded who crowd the city's hospitals.

From the ice-bound port of Archangel on the north to the sands of the desert of Palestine on the south have these devoted men and women of the American Red Cross journeyed to minister to the sick and wounded. They have endured hardships and fatigue, have faced danger and disease; and some have laid down their lives in this service. They have known neither race nor religious faith, but only the Red Cross creed—Neutrality, Humanity.

CHAPTER XXIII

A HISTORY OF NOBLE DEEDS. THE DAILY SERVICE. OUTCLASSED IN MEMBERSHIP AND ENDOWMENT. ALMONER OF THE PEOPLE. AUTHORITY IN WAR. A CASTLE OF DREAMS BECOMES ONE OF MARBLE. VISIONS OF THE FUTURE.

HALF a century ago began the great humanitarian movement of the Red Cross. Half a century since has written a history whose many pages are filled with deeds of chivalry, of tenderness and of brotherly sympathy unequalled in the records of the world. Unnumbered are the multitude whose tears have been dried, whose sufferings assuaged and whose lives saved by its ministrations.

Though only ten years have passed since the rebirth of the American Red Cross as a national organization, it has gone onto a hundred fields of human misery and distress, bringing help and consolation. To-day not only in every European war-smitten country, but in troubled Mexico, in flood-stricken China, in far storm-swept Samoa and the islands of the Ladrones, it is aiding helpless victims of man's wrath and of nature's great destructive forces. Long after the cause is forgotten the work goes on. In the houses its bounty has provided live still those who without its aid would have been homeless; little children, old men and women are educated or sheltered by its continuing care; over the family of many a miner killed in some terrible explosion, of many a victim of fire or ocean tragedy, it stands yet the guardian of the widow and orphan, with the pension that maintains the homes. But best of all proof of its wonderful service is the still far greater number who to-day, because of its timely help and wise assistance in the hour of their trial and utter desolation, are once more strong and independent men and women, earning their honest livelihood.

Not alone does the individual profit by this aid, but entire communities are rescued from the despondency that follows great disasters. Whether some little hamlet or some large city suffers from the overwhelming calamity of fire, flood, storm or earthquake: or the still more pitiful disaster of widespread famine or of pestilence settles over a great province or empire,—the people are brought down to desolation and despair. There are none at hand to help them in their wretchedness. Without aid they must die, or drift away from their homes like unmoored boats before a storm, to be swamped at sea or wrecked upon the rocks of unknown shores. It is to these communities that the strong arms of the Red Cross bear aid from their brothers of the nation,—if need be, from their kindred of the world.

Nor are its services for humanity limited by war and disaster. Into the daily life it carries its capable organization for continuous usefulness. In the work of the first aid department lies far-reaching results in the preservation of the wage-earner of the family and the labor producer of the country. Through the medium of the instructions for women in elementary hygiene and home care of the sick the mothers of the nation become of untold aid in the maintenance of the physical health and well-being of our people. Rural and village life have brought to their homes and communities the help of the Red Cross nurse, with her practical lessons in sanitation and the prevention of disease. If the Red Cross work for the preservation of life in time of war has not only its humane features, but its patriotic reasons in the conservation of the manhood of the country, thus, too, does it render in time of peace a constant patriotic and humane service to the nation.

With this proud history of its noble deeds in the past, with its great purpose and its efficient organization, what of the future of our American Red Cross?

As yet this national association of ours, which belongs to the country and to the people, is in its infancy. Lusty and vigorous it is true, but lacking still the size and development it must attain before it is a worthy representative of these United States of America. It has twenty-two thousand members. Eighteen hundred thousand men, women and children of Japan constitute the membership of the Japanese Red Cross. Hundreds of thousands manifest their love of country in other lands by adhesion to the ranks of their national association. Our American Red Cross has less than a million dollar endowment fund. The permanent endowment of the Japanese Red Cross is nearly thirteen million dollars. The Russian society before the present war had a reserve capital of nineteen million dollars. And the funds of several other European associations are far more than those of our own. In a country of such wealth, of such patriotism and humanity as this, the American people cannot allow their Red Cross to remain without a just endowment. They give with the utmost liberality to local charities, to hospitals, to universities and colleges; but they have yet to learn to express the love for their country by their gifts to the organization which stands as the embodiment of patriotism both in war and peace. The records of the foreign associations bear evidence of the constant gifts and legacies received from the men and women of Europe and Japan. Here in America less than fifty persons have contributed more than two-thirds of the nine hundred thousand dollars which constitute the entire endowment of the American Red Cross. Generous donors to this fund as they were, Mr. Cleveland H. Dodge, Mrs. Whitelaw Reid, and Mrs. E. H. Harriman, of New York, also make large annual contributions to enable the society to carry on its administrative work.

The words "society" or "association" are used in referring to the Red Cross to prevent repetition of the name, but neither of them conveys an adequate or correct idea of its standing and importance. It is neither a society nor an association in reality, but the great volunteer aid department of our country to administer the generosity of the people in time of national or international need. Its accounts are required by law to be audited by the War Department; it must make an official annual report to Congress; if unworthy of its high calling, it may be dissolved by that body, which created it; it has government supervision without government control; and under an international treaty it has received international recognition.

In case the misfortune of war should fall upon this country all volunteer aid must come under the direction of the American Red Cross to carry out the obligation of the United States Government under the Treaty of Geneva, to fulfill the requirements imposed by Congress, to secure efficiency under centralized authority and trained organization in close affiliation with the army and navy medical service, and finally to safeguard the public against fraud and abuse.

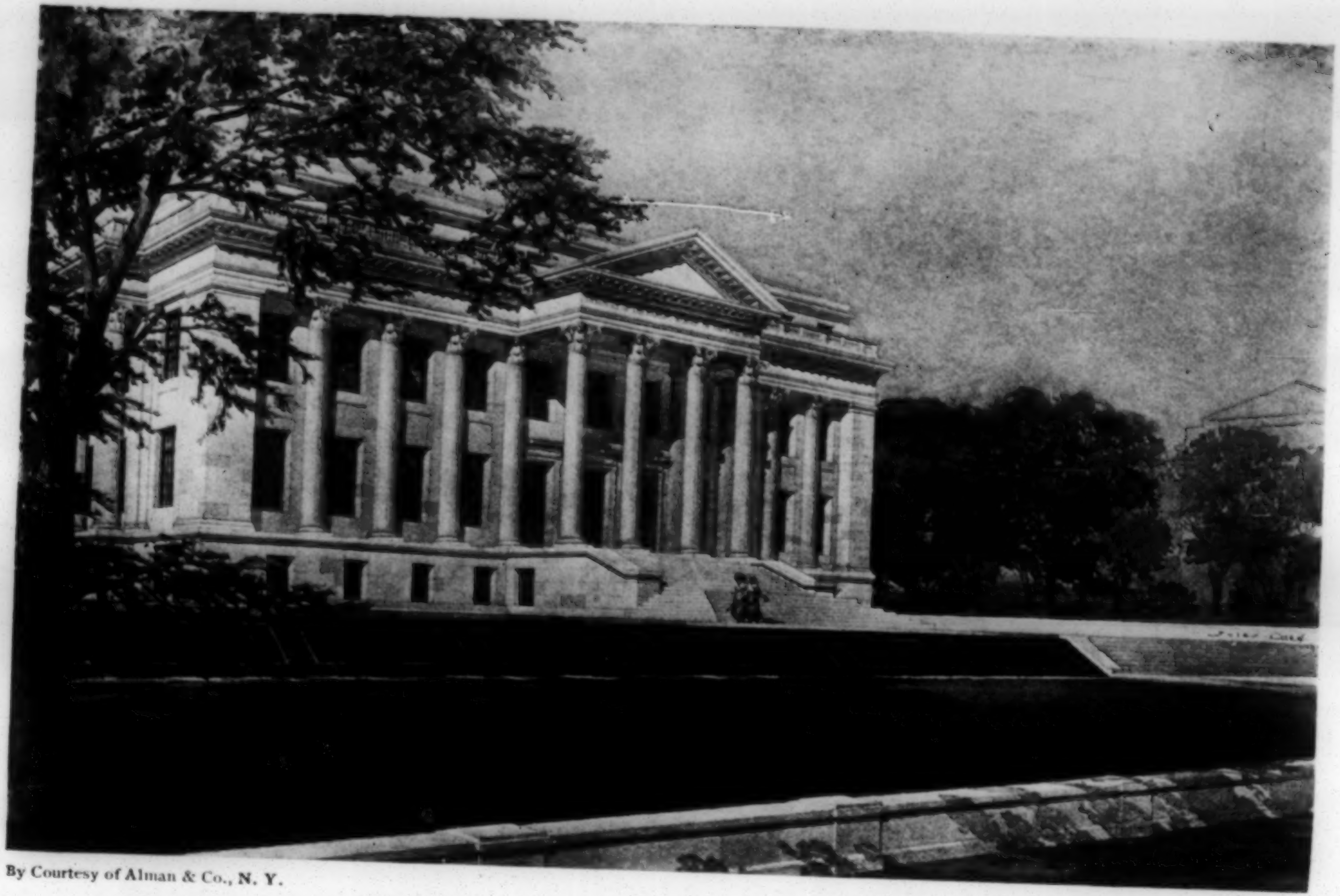
That our association is still seriously lacking in membership and handicapped by its small endowment is, I think, evident to all; but it is fortunate in its prospects for an adequate and dignified headquarters in Washington.

On the initiative of Mr. James A. Scrymser, who himself offered one hundred thousand dollars, a plan was developed and matured by which Congress appropriated four hundred thousand dollars for the purchase of a site and the erection of a "Memorial to the Heroic Women of the Civil War," to cost not less than seven hundred thousand dollars, provided the necessary additional amount was secured by the Red Cross from private contribution. Mr. Scrymser's generous gift was promptly supplemented by one from Mrs. Russell Sage of one hundred and fifty thousand, by fifty thousand from Mrs. E. H. Harriman, and by one hundred thousand from the Rockefeller Foundation. The commission in charge of the purchase of the site and the construction of the memorial, of which the Secretary of War is chairman and the President a member, were most fortunate in securing in Washington the entire square situated between the Corcoran Art Gallery and the Memorial Hall of the Daughters of the American Revolution, the fine Pan-American Building occupying the fourth square facing the White Lot. Here is being erected a beautiful classical building of white marble, to be the administrative headquarters in perpetuity of the Red Cross.

The words of the appeal of the Loyal Legion which first started the memorial plan, before it was undertaken by the society, express the thought embodied in this monument: "Comrades, these women were your mothers, your sisters and your wives. You know that they were your co-equals in labor and more than your equals in bitterness of sorrow, for in your absence at the front they bore your burdens on their shoulders and your sufferings in their hearts. Will you quit the battlefield of life and leave no enduring expression of your appreciation? Give, therefore, as you are able. Give even of your poverty. The last roll-call is near. Forgetfulness is injustice. Remembrance is a sacred duty."

On the walls of the memorial will be placed a tablet bearing this inscription: "A Memorial built by the Government of the United States and Patriotic Citizens to the Women of the North and the Women of the South held in Loving Memory by a now United Country. That their labors to mitigate the sufferings of the sick and wounded in war may be forever perpetuated this Memorial is dedicated to the service of the American Red Cross."

The beautiful structure will take its place among a remarkable group of buildings representing art, patriotism and peace, while the memorial itself commemorates the service and lives of heroic women of the past and stands as a symbol of the brotherhood of man. In a



By Courtesy of Alman & Co., N. Y.

NEW RED CROSS HEADQUARTERS. IN MEMORY OF THE HEROIC WOMEN OF THE CIVIL WAR

not distant future other buildings will cluster about this exquisite memorial, as the fields of our Red Cross activities grow and develop. With the eyes of faith I see, on one side, a grand priory of our Knights of St. John of Jerusalem who, like those of the order in England and other lands, will take charge, under the Red Cross, of all the vast domain of first aid duties in time of peace and of the male personnel in time of war. On the other side I see the graceful priory of our nursing order, an order of St. Filomena, supported and upheld by the patriotism and love of American women.

Are these but visions, or are they born of such faith in the Red Cross and the people of the United States of America that they must become realities?

Amidst destruction, desolation and despair; amidst suffering, carnage and death, floats the banner of humanity. Against this standard no arm is raised and no gun is fired. United in the service of mercy, under the one universal flag of the Red Cross, are the nations and the peoples of the world.

APPENDIX

THE REVISED TREATY OF GENEVA SIGNED JULY 6, 1906

CHAPTER I.—THE SICK AND WOUNDED.

ARTICLE I. Officers, soldiers, and other persons officially attached to armies, who are sick or wounded, shall be respected and cared for, without distinction of nationality, by the belligerent in whose power they are.

A belligerent, however, when compelled to leave his wounded in the hands of his adversary, shall leave with them, so far as military conditions permit, a portion of the personnel and materiel of his sanitary service to assist in caring for them.

ART. 2. Subject to the care that must be taken of them under the preceding article, the sick and wounded of an army who fall into the power of the other belligerent become prisoners of war, and the general rules of international law in respect to prisoners become applicable to them.

The belligerents remain free, however, to mutually agree upon such clauses, by way of exception or favor, in relation to the wounded or sick as they may deem proper. They shall especially have authority to agree:

1. To mutually return the sick and wounded left on the field of battle after an engagement.

2. To send back to their own country the sick and wounded who have recovered, or who are in a condition to be transported and whom they do not desire to retain as prisoners.

3. To send the sick and wounded of the enemy to a neutral state, with the consent of the latter and on condition that it shall charge itself with their internment until the close of hostilities.

ART. 3. After every engagement the belligerent who remains in possession of the field of battle shall take measures to search for the wounded and to protect the wounded and dead from robbery and ill treatment.

He will see that a careful examination is made of the bodies of the dead prior to their internment or incineration.

ART. 4. As soon as possible each belligerent shall forward to the authorities of their country or army the marks or military papers of identification found upon the bodies of the dead, together with a list of names of the sick and wounded taken in charge by him.

Belligerents will keep each other mutually advised of internments and transfers, together with admissions to hospitals and deaths which occur among the sick and wounded in their hands. They will collect all objects of personal use, valuables, letters, etc., which are found upon the field of battle, or have been left by the sick or wounded who have died in sanitary formations or other establishments, for transmission to persons in interest through the authorities of their own country.

ART. 5. Military authority may make an appeal to the charitable zeal of the inhabitants to receive and, under its supervision, to care for the sick and wounded of the armies, granting to persons responding to such appeals special protection and certain immunities.

CHAPTER II.—SANITARY FORMATIONS AND ESTABLISHMENTS.

ART. 6. Mobile sanitary formations (*i.e.*, those which are intended to accompany armies in the field) and the fixed establishments belonging to the sanitary service shall be protected and respected by belligerents.

ART. 7. The protection due to sanitary formations and establishments ceases if they are used to commit acts injurious to the enemy.

ART. 8. A sanitary formation or establishment shall not be deprived of the protection accorded by article 6 by the fact:

1. That the personnel of a formation or establishment is armed and uses its arms in self-defense or in defense of its sick and wounded.

2. That in the absence of armed hospital attendants, the formation is guarded by an armed detachment or by sentinels acting under competent orders.

3. That arms or cartridges, taken from the wounded and not yet turned over to the proper authorities, are found in the formation or establishment.

CHAPTER III.—PERSONNEL.

ART. 9. The personnel charged exclusively with the removal, transportation, and treatment of the sick and wounded, as well as with the administration of sanitary formations and establishments, and the chaplains attached to armies, shall be respected and protected under all circumstances. If they fall into the hands of the enemy they shall not be considered as prisoners of war.

These provisions apply to the guards of sanitary formations and establishments in the case provided for in section 2 of article 8.

ART. 10. The personnel of volunteer aid societies, duly recognized and authorized by their own governments, who are employed in the sanitary formations and establishments of armies, are assimilated to the personnel contemplated in the preceding article, upon condition that the said personnel shall be subject to military laws and regulations.

Each state shall make known to the other, either in time of peace or at the opening, or during the progress of hostilities, and in any case before actual employment, the names of the societies which it has authorized to render assistance, under its responsibility, in the official sanitary service of its armies.

ART. 11. A recognized society of a neutral state can only lend the services of its sanitary personnel and formations to a belligerent with the prior consent of its own government and the authority of such belligerent. The belligerent who has accepted such assistance is required to notify the enemy before making any use therof.

ART. 12. Persons described in articles 9, 10, and 11 will continue in the exercise of their functions, under the direction of the enemy, after they have fallen into his power.

When their assistance is no longer indispensable they will be sent back to their army or country within such period and by such route as may accord with military necessity. They will carry with them such effects, instruments, arms, and horses as are their private property.

ART. 13. While they remain in his power, the enemy will secure to the personnel mentioned in article 9 the same pay and allowances to which persons of the same grade in his own army are entitled.

CHAPTER IV.—MATÉRIEL.

ART. 14. If mobile sanitary formations fall into the power of the enemy, they shall retain their matériel, including the teams, whatever may be the means of transportation and the conducting personnel. Competent military authority, however, shall have the right to employ it in caring for the sick and wounded. The restitution of the matériel shall take place in accordance with the conditions prescribed for the sanitary personnel, and, as far as possible, at the same time.

ART. 15. Buildings and matériel pertaining to fixed establishments shall remain subject to the laws of war, but can not be diverted from their use so long as they are necessary for the sick and wounded. Commanders of troops engaged in operations, however, may use them, in case of important military necessity, if, before such use, the sick and wounded who are in them have been provided for.

ART. 16. The matériel of aid societies admitted to the benefits of this convention, in conformity to the conditions therein established, is regarded as private property and, as such, will be respected under all circumstances, save that it is subject to the recognized right of requisition by belligerents in conformity to the laws and usages of war.

CHAPTER V.—CONVOYS OF EVACUATION.

ART. 17. Convoys of evacuation shall be treated as mobile sanitary formations subject to the following special provisions:

1. A belligerent intercepting a convoy may, if required by military necessity, break up such convoy, charging himself with the care of the sick and wounded whom it contains.

2. In this case the obligation to return the sanitary personnel,

as provided for in article 12, shall be extended to include the entire military personnel employed, under competent orders, in the transportation and protection of the convoy.

The obligation to return the sanitary matériel, as provided for in article 14, shall apply to railway trains and vessels intended for interior navigation which have been especially equipped for evacuation purposes, as well as to the ordinary vehicles, trains, and vessels which belong to the sanitary service.

Military vehicles, with their teams, other than those belonging to the sanitary service, may be captured.

The civil personnel and the various means of transportation obtained by requisition, including railway matériel and vessels utilized for convoys, are subject to the general rules of international law.

CHAPTER VI.—DISTINCTIVE EMBLEM.

ART. 18. Out of respect to Switzerland the heraldic emblem of the red cross on a white ground, formed by the reversal of the federal colors, is continued as the emblem and distinctive sign of the sanitary service of armies.

ART. 19. This emblem appears on flags and brassards as well as upon all matériel appertaining to the sanitary service, with the permission of the competent military authority.

ART. 20. The personnel protected in virtue of the first paragraph of article 9, and articles 10 and 11, will wear attached to the left arm a brassard bearing a red cross on a white ground, which will be issued and stamped by competent military authority, and accompanied by a certificate of identity in the case of persons attached to the sanitary service of armies who do not have military uniform.

ART. 21. The distinctive flag of the convention can only be displayed over the sanitary formations and establishments which the convention provides shall be respected, and with the consent of the military authorities. It shall be accompanied by the national flag of the belligerent to whose service the formation or establishment is attached.

Sanitary formations which have fallen into the power of the enemy, however, shall fly no other flag than that of the Red Cross so long as they continue in that situation.

ART. 22. The sanitary formations of neutral countries which, under the conditions set forth in article 11, have been authorized to render their services, shall fly, with the flag of the convention, the national flag of the belligerent to which they are attached. The provisions of the second paragraph of the preceding article are applicable to them.

ART. 23. The emblem of the red cross on a white ground and the words *Red Cross* or *Geneva Cross* may only be used, whether in time of peace or war, to protect or designate sanitary formations and establishments, the personnel and matériel protected by the convention.

CHAPTER VII.—APPLICATION AND EXECUTION OF THE CONVENTION

ART. 24. The provisions of the present convention are obligatory only on the contracting powers, in case of war between two or more of them. The said provisions shall cease to be obligatory if one of the belligerent powers should not be signatory to the convention.

ART. 25. It shall be the duty of the commanders in chief of the belligerent armies to provide for the details of execution of the foregoing articles, as well as for unforeseen cases, in accordance with the instructions of their respective governments, and conformably to the general principles of this convention.

ART. 26. The signatory governments shall take the necessary steps to acquaint their troops, and particularly the protected personnel, with the provisions of this convention and to make them known to the people at large.

CHAPTER VIII.—REPRESSION OF ABUSES AND INFRACTIONS

ART. 27. The signatory powers whose legislation may not now be adequate engage to take or recommend to their legislatures such measures as may be necessary to prevent the use, by private persons or by societies other than those upon which this convention confers the right thereto, of the emblem or name of the Red Cross or Geneva Cross, particularly for commercial purposes by means of trade-marks or commercial labels.

The prohibition of the use of the emblem or name in question shall take effect from the time set in each act of legislation, and at the latest five years after this convention goes into effect. After such going into effect, it shall be unlawful to use a trademark or commercial label contrary to such prohibition.

ART. 28. In the event of their military penal laws being insufficient, the signatory governments also engage to take, or to recommend to their legislatures, the necessary measures to repress, in time of war, individual acts of robbery and ill treatment of the sick and wounded of the armies, as well as to punish, as usurpations of military insignia, the wrongful use of the flag and brassard of the Red Cross by military persons or private individuals not protected by the present convention.

They will communicate to each other through the Swiss Federal Council the measures taken with a view to such repression, not later than five years from the ratification of the present convention.

GENERAL PROVISIONS

ART. 29. The present convention shall be ratified as soon as possible. The ratifications will be deposited at Berne.

A record of the deposit of each act of ratification shall be prepared, of which a duly certified copy shall be sent, through diplomatic channels, to each of the contracting powers.

Art. 30. The present convention shall become operative, as to each power, six months after the date of deposit of its ratification.

Art. 31. The present convention, when duly ratified, shall supersede the Convention of August 22, 1864, in the relations between the contracting states.

The Convention of 1864 remains in force in the relations between the parties who signed it but who may not also ratify the present convention.

Art. 32. The present convention may, until December 31, proximo, be signed by the powers represented at the conefrence which opened at Geneva on June 11, 1906, as well as by the powers not represented at the conference who have signed the Convention of 1864.

Such of these powers as shall not have signed the present convention on or before December 31, 1906, will remain at liberty to accede to it after that date. They shall signify their adherence in a written notification addressed to the Swiss Federal Council, and communicated to all the contracting powers by the said Council.

Other powers may request to adhere in the same manner, but their request shall only be effective if, within the period of one year from its notification to the Federal Council, such Council has not been advised of any opposition on the part of any of the contracting powers.

Art. 33. Each of the contracting parties shall have the right to denounce the present convention. This denunciation shall only become operative one year after a notification in writing shall have been made to the Swiss Federal Council, which shall forthwith communicate such notification to all the other contracting parties.

This denunciation shall only become operative in respect to the power which has given it.

In faith whereof the plenipotentiaries have signed the present convention and affixed their seals thereto.

Done at Geneva, the sixth day of July, one thousand nine hundred and six, in a single copy, which shall remain in the archives of the Swiss Confederation and certified copies of which shall be delivered to the contracting parties through diplomatic channels.

(Here follow the signatures.)

CONGRESSIONAL CHARTER.

An Act to incorporate the American National Red Cross.

Whereas, on the twenty-second of August, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, at Geneva, Switzerland, plenipotentiaries respectively representing Italy, Baden, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Portugal, France, Prussia, Saxony, and Wurttemberg and the Federal Council of Switzerland agreed upon ten articles of a treaty or convention for the purpose of mitigating the evils inseparable from war; of ameliorating the condition of soldiers wounded on the field of battle, and particularly providing, among other things, in effect, that persons employed in hospitals and in according relief to the sick and wounded and supplies for this purpose shall be deemed neutral and entitled to protection; and that a distinctive and uniform flag shall be adopted for hospitals and ambulances and convoys of sick and wounded and an arm badge for individuals neutralized; and

WHEREAS, said treaty has been ratified by all of said nations, and by others subsequently, to the number of forty-three or more, including the United States of America; and

WHEREAS, the International Conference of Geneva of eighteen hundred and sixty-three recommended "that there exist in every country a committee whose mission consists in co-operating in times of war with the hospital service of the armies by all means in its power"; and

WHEREAS, a permanent organization is an agency needed in every nation to carry out the purposes of said treaty, and especially to secure supplies and to execute the humane objects contemplated by said treaty, with the power to adopt and use the distinctive flag and arm badge specified by said treaty in article seven, on which shall be the sign of the Red Cross, for the purpose of co-operating with the "Comité International de Secours aux Militaires Blessés" (International Committee of Relief for the Wounded in War); and

WHEREAS, in accordance with the requirements and customs of said international body such an association adopting and using said insignia was formed in the city of Washington, District of Columbia, in July, eighteen hundred and eighty-one, known as "The American National Association of the Red Cross," re-incorporated April seventeenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, under the laws of the District of Columbia, and re-incorporated by Act of Congress in June, nineteen hundred; and

WHEREAS, it is believed that the importance of the work demands a repeal of the present charter and a re-incorporation of the society under Government supervision: Now, therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That Clara Barton, Hilary A. Herbert, Thomas F. Walsh, Charles C. Glover, Charles J. Bell, Mabel T. Boardman, George Dewey, William R. Day, Nelson A. Miles, James Tanner, William K. Van Reypen, John M. Wilson, Simon Wolf, James R. Garfield, Gifford Pinchot, S. W. Woodward, Mary A. Logan, Walter Wyman, of Washington, District of Columbia; George H. Shields, of Missouri; William H. Taft, F. B. Loomis, Samuel Mather, of Ohio; Spencer Trask, Robert C. Ogden, Cleveland H. Dodge, George C. Boldt, William T. Wardell, John G. Carlisle, George B. McClellan, Elizabeth Mills Reid, Margaret Carnegie, of New York; John H. Converse, Alexander Mackay-Smith, J. Wilkes O'Neill, H. Kirke Porter, of Pennsylvania; Richard Olney, W. Murray Crane, Henry L. Higginson, William Draper, Frederick H. Gillett, of Massachusetts; Marshall Field, Robert T. Lincoln, Lambert Tree, of Illinois; A. C. Kaufman, of South Carolina; Alexander W. Terrell, of Texas; George Gray, of Delaware; Redfield Proctor, of Vermont; John W. Foster, Noble C. Butler, Robert W. Miers, of Indiana; John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi; William Alden Smith, of Michigan; Horace Davis, W. W. Morrow, of California; Daniel C. Gilman, Eugene Levering, of Maryland; J. Taylor Ellyson, of Virginia; Daniel R. Noyes, of Minnesota; Emanuel Fiske, Marshall Fiske, of Connecticut, together with five other persons to be named by the President of the United States, one to be chosen from each of the departments of State, War, Navy, Treasury, and Justice, their associates and successors, are hereby created a body corporate and politic in the District of Columbia.

SEC. 2. That the name of this corporation shall be "The American National Red Cross," and by that name shall have perpetual succession, with the power to sue and be sued in courts of law and equity within the jurisdiction of the United States; to have and to hold such real and personal estate as shall be deemed advisable and to accept bequests for the purposes of this corporation hereinafter set forth; to adopt a seal and the same to alter and destroy at pleasure; and to have the right to have and to use in carrying out its purposes hereinafter designated, as an emblem and badge, a Greek red cross on a white ground, as the same has been described in the treaty of Geneva, August twenty-second, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, and adopted by the several nations acceding thereto; to ordain and establish By-Laws and regulations not inconsistent with the laws of the United States of America or any State thereof, and generally to do all such acts and things (including the establishment of regulations for the election of associates and successors) as may be necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this Act and promote the purposes of said organization; and the corporation hereby created is designated as the organization which is authorized to act in matters of relief under said treaty. In accordance with article seven of the treaty, the delivery of the brassard allowed for individuals neutralized in time of war shall be left to military authority.

SEC. 3. That the purposes of this corporation are and shall be—

First. To furnish volunteer aid to the sick and wounded of armies in time of war, in accordance with the spirit and conditions of the conference of Geneva of October, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, and also of the treaty of the Red Cross, or the treaty of Geneva, of August twenty-second, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, to which the United States of America gave its adhesion on March first, eighteen hundred and eighty-two.

Second. And for said purposes to perform all the duties devolved upon a national society by each nation which has acceded to said treaty.

Third. To succeed to all the rights and property which have been hitherto held and to all the duties which have heretofore been performed by the American National Red Cross as a corporation duly incorporated by Act of Congress June sixth, nineteen hundred, which Act is hereby repealed and the organization created thereby is hereby dissolved.

Fourth. To act in matters of voluntary relief and in accord with the military and naval authorities as a medium of communication between the people of the United States of America and their Army and Navy, and to act in such matters between similar national societies of other governments through the "Comité International de Secours," and the Government and the people and the Army and Navy of the United States of America.

Fifth. And to continue and carry on a system of national and international relief in time of peace and to apply the same in mitigating the sufferings caused by pestilence, famine, fire, floods, and other great national calamities, and to devise and carry on measures for preventing the same.

Sec. 4. That from and after the passage of this Act it shall be unlawful for any person within the jurisdiction of the United States to falsely and fraudulently hold himself out as, or represent or pretend himself to be, a member of, or an agent for, the American National Red Cross, for the purpose of soliciting, collecting, or receiving money or material; or for any person to wear or display the sign of the Red Cross, or any insignia colored in imitation thereof for the fraudulent purpose of inducing the belief that he is a member of, or an agent for, the American National Red Cross. Nor shall it be lawful for any person or corporation, other than the Red Cross of America, not now lawfully entitled to use the sign of the Red Cross, hereafter to use such sign or any insignia colored in imitation thereof for the purposes of trade or as an advertisement to induce the sale of any article whatsoever. If any person violates the provisions of this section, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and shall be liable to a fine of not less than one nor more than five hundred dollars, or imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or both, for each and every offense. The fine so collected shall be paid to the American National Red Cross.

Sec. 5. That the governing body of the said American National Red Cross shall consist, in the first instance, of a central committee numbering eighteen persons, to be appointed in the following manner, namely: Six by the incorporators herein named and twelve by the President of the United States, one of whom shall be designated by the President to act as chairman. It shall be the duty of the central committee to organize, with as little delay as possible, State and Territorial societies, including the District of Columbia, under such rules as the said committee may prescribe. When six or more State or Territorial societies have been formed, thereafter the central committee shall be composed as follows: Six to be appointed by the incorporators, six by the representatives of the State and Territorial societies at the annual meeting of the incorporators and societies, and six by the

President of the United States, one of whom shall be designated by him as chairman and one each to be named by him from the Departments of State, War, Navy, Treasury, and Justice.

The first six members of the central committee elected by the incorporators at the first annual meeting, and the first six members of the central committee elected by the State and Territorial delegates, shall when elected select by lot from their number two members to serve one year, two members to serve two years, and two members to serve three years, and each subsequent election of members shall be for a period of three years or until their sucessors are duly elected and qualify. The six members of the central committee appointed by the President at the annual meeting shall serve for one year.

The President shall fill as soon as may be any vacancy that may occur by death, resignation, or otherwise in the chairmanship or in the membership of the central committee appointed by him. And any vacancy that may occur in the six members of the central committee herein provided to be appointed by the incorporators or in the six to be appointed by the representatives of the State societies shall be filled by temporary appointments to be made by the remaining members of the six in which the vacancy or vacancies may occur, such appointees to serve until the next annual meeting.

The central committee shall have power to appoint from its own members an executive committee of seven persons, five of whom shall be a quorum, who, when the central committee is not in session, shall have and exercise all the powers of the central committee.

The Secretary of War shall within thirty days after the passage of this Act call a meeting at a time and place to be designated by him in the city of Washington of the incorporators hereunder, giving at least thirty days' notice thereof in one or more newspapers, and the annual meeting of said incorporators, their associates and successors, shall thereafter be held in said city on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in December, the first of said meetings to be held in December, nineteen hundred and five. Fifteen members shall constitute a quorum at any annual or special meeting.

Voting by proxy shall not be allowed at any meeting of the incorporators, annual or special, nor at any meeting of State or Territorial societies organized under the provisions of this charter.

SEC. 6. That the said American National Red Cross shall on the first day of January of each year make and transmit to the Secretary of War a report of its proceedings for the preceding year, including a full complete, and itemized report of receipts and expenditures of whatever kind, which report shall be duly audited by the War Department, and a copy of said report shall be transmitted to Congress by the War Department.

SEC. 7. That Congress shall have the right to repeal, alter, or amend this Act at any time.

Approved, January 5, 1905.

AMENDMENT

An Act to amend an Act entitled "An Act to incorporate the American National Red Cross," approved January fifth, nineteen hundred and five.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That section four of the Act entitled "An Act to incorporate the American National Red Cross," approved January fifth, nineteen hundred and five, is hereby amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 4. That from and after the passage of this Act it shall be unlawful for any person within the jurisdiction of the United States to falsely or fraudulently hold himself out as or represent or pretend himself to be a member of or an agent for the American National Red Cross for the purpose of soliciting, collecting, or receiving money or material or for any person to wear or display the sign of the Red Cross or any insignia colored in inducing the belief that he is a member of or an agent for the American National Red Cross. It shall be unlawful for any person, corporation, or association other than the American National Red Cross and its duly authorized employees and agents and the army and navy sanitary and hospital authorities of the United States for the purpose of trade or as an advertisement to induce the sale of any article whatever or for any business or charitable purpose to use within the territory of the United States of America and its exterior possessions the emblem of the Greek Red Cross on a white ground, or any sign or insignia made or colored in imitation thereof, or of the words 'Red Cross' or 'Geneva Cross' or any combination of these words: *Provided, however,* That no person, corporation, or association that actually used or whose assignor actually used the said emblem, sign, insignia, or words for any lawful purpose prior to January fifth, nineteen hundred and five, shall be deemed forbidden by this Act to continue the use thereof for the same purpose and for the same class of goods. If any person violates the provisions of this section he shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction in any federal court shall be liable to a fine of not less than one nor more than five hundred dollars, or imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or both, for each and every offense."

SEC. 2. That the following section is hereby added to said Act:

"SEC. 8. That the endowment fund of the American National Red Cross shall be kept and invested under the management and control of a board of nine trustees, who shall be elected from time to time by the incorporators and their successors under such regulations regarding terms and tenure of office, accountability, and expense as said incorporators and successors shall prescribe."

Approved, June 23, 1910.

AMENDMENT

An Act to amend Section Five of the Act entitled "An Act to Incorporate the American Red Cross," approved January fifth, nineteen hundred and five.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That section five of the Act for the Incorporation of the American National Red Cross, approved January fifth, nineteen hundred and five, be, and the same hereby is, amended so that the annual meeting of the said organization shall hereafter be held on the Wednesday preceding the second Thursday in the month of December in each and every year.

SEC. 2. That this Act shall take effect immediately.

Approved, December 10, 1912.

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